

AN ELEMENTARY HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES.

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BY
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"CIVILIZATION: A HISTORICAL REVIEW OF ITS ELEMENTS," ETC.

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PREFACE.

HISTORIES of the United States of America have been many times written, and in many ways; so often, indeed, that some might deem there was nothing more to say, or no new way of saying it. Yet new histories are of yearly appearance, and the world does not seem tired of welcoming them. These are usually written for the old; but why not new histories for the young, who can certainly find no more profitable reading than the story of the origin and development of their own country?

No romance, in fact, can have more of interest and adventure, heroic efforts and noble deeds, than may be found in the history of the discovery and settlement of the American continent, and the birth and growth of the great republic of the United States. In the whole history of mankind there is little to surpass it in interest, and nothing in importance. To the youthful American, indeed, it is indispensable, and whatever else he may learn, a full and accurate acquaintance with the story of his own land should stand first in his course of study, as an absolutely requisite preliminary to the making of an American citizen.

This story is too near us to appeal to our minds with that glamour of romance which often clings to the annals of

more remote periods. To many it seems devoid of the interest of the era of chivalry, the charm of knightly deeds and strange adventure, and takes form in their minds instead as a detail of prosy incidents and matter-of-fact events. Yet such a conception does great injustice to the true character of American history, and to the numerous instances of knightly valor and chivalrous honor which give all the interest of romance to its pages. The deeds of our pioneers have never been surpassed in daring and the spirit of adventure, the progress of discovery and settlement in this country is a story replete with attractiveness, while there is nothing more marvellous in fiction than the extraordinary progress of civilization in the region of the United States during the few centuries since settlement was first made upon its shores.

History, however, in the modern sense of the word, covers a broader space than the tale of war and adventure, daring migration and political progress. There is the story of the people as well as of their leaders to tell, the home life of the masses, the record of manners and customs, invention, and peaceful development in the arts and sciences. Thus we are not alone concerned with war and the rumors of war, but also with peace and the triumphs of peace; not alone with political development, the formation of governments, the struggles of patriotism, and the growth of republicanism, but also with the details of every-day life, the description of those powerful influences which have made not only America but the Americans, and to which the citizens of our country owe that spirit of liberty and restless energy

which have made them the envy of the oppressed masses of Europe, and their country the modern "wonder of the world." This inner story of the American people we have endeavored to set forth in a series of chapters descriptive of city and country life at various periods of our colonial and national history, each a picture of the people of America as they appeared at the various periods indicated. The progress of invention, striking developments of mechanical ability, religious conditions, and all that makes up the multiform life of a great people, have been described as fully as the space at command permitted, with the design of making at once a history of the American nation and of the American people, adapted in style and language to the use of the young. As such it is offered to the school public of the United States, with the hope that it may prove a welcome addition to our historical literature.

C. M.

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AN ELEMENTARY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

PART I.

EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

I.—THE VOYAGE OF COLUMBUS.

Four Hundred Years ago.—The world had grown old, very old, before America was discovered. Great empires had risen in Europe and Asia, and passed away; many millions of men had lived and died; but not half the earth was known. Men did not even know its shape. Most persons thought that the earth was flat, and that the ocean everywhere spread around the land. Sailors were afraid to go far out to sea, and most of them kept in sight of land, for no one knew what dangers might lie out on the open ocean, where man had never been. Many thought that a ship which sailed far out on the ocean would find itself gliding down a hill of waters, up which it could never climb again. Others believed that there was a region of fogs and mists, in which a ship, once lost, would never find its way out. Most of the learned men of the time refused to believe that a vessel could pass round the earth and return to its starting-point.

The Mariner's Compass.—Before this time an important

discovery was made. A stone was found which had strange properties. It was what is now known as the loadstone, or natural magnet, and which has the power of attracting iron, and of pointing north and south. A steel needle rubbed on it acquires the same properties. Hung up by its centre, one end of the needle points towards the north. This was a discovery of the utmost importance to seamen. They can now, even though they are thousands of miles from land, tell by day or night in what direction they are sailing. Few things have been more useful to mankind than this little magnetic needle, known as the *mariner's compass*.

Marco Polo.—At the time of which we are speaking—the latter part of the fifteenth century—there was the greatest



A SHIP OF THE NORTHMEN.

desire to discover new countries. Travellers had been to far-off lands, and had come back with strange stories, which filled others with the love of adventure and discovery. One traveller, a Venetian named Marco Polo, had been as far as China and Japan, and brought back exciting accounts of the riches and wonders of those distant lands. The ships of the Portuguese had sailed down the coast of Africa as far as the Cape of Good Hope. The bold sailors of Norway and Denmark had crossed the cold northern seas to Iceland and Greenland, and it is now thought that they had reached the shores of the American continent at a point they called Vineland.

Christopher Columbus.—Among the many persons who wished to go on voyages of discovery was one whose name is known to us all, and will be as long as America exists.

He was born at Genoa, in Italy, about the year 1435, and was named Christopher Columbus. His father was a cloth weaver; but the people of Genoa were great sailors, and Columbus was sent to sea when he was but fourteen years old, and became a very skilful sailor.

At that time India and China were known to be countries of great wealth, but they could be reached only by long and costly journeys overland. Caravans crossed the deserts and the mountains of Asia to these far-off lands, and brought back the silks of China and the jewels and spices of India at great expense and trouble. Was there no easier way to reach those rich regions? Columbus thought there was. He believed that the earth was round, that the ocean must extend from the shores of Europe to the shores of Asia, and that if he sailed to the west across this ocean he would be sure to reach those distant lands. He did not know how far it was round the earth, but he was sure that land lay beyond the ocean.

It was not easy to make men believe this. For eighteen long years Columbus tried in vain to get the Kings of Spain and Portugal to aid him in his plan. He grew sick at heart with delay and disappointment. At last the Queen of Spain said that he should have the ships and men he asked for. If money could not be had she would lend her jewels to pay for them. And thus it was that Columbus got his ships. Three small vessels were given him,—we call them ships, but they were little larger than the sloops and yachts which we may see every day moving up and down our large rivers. Two of them, the *Pinta* and the *Nina*, had no decks except at the



COLUMBUS.

prow and stern. Only one of them had a complete deck, the *Santa Maria*, commanded by Columbus himself. This vessel was ninety feet long, and had a crew of sixty-six sailors.

It seems strange to us that it took so many years to induce the rulers of a great kingdom to furnish such ships for a voyage across the ocean and the discovery of a new world. Many river merchants to-day could fit out a much better expedition at a few days' notice. Nothing could show more clearly how the world has grown in riches and enterprise during the last four hundred years.

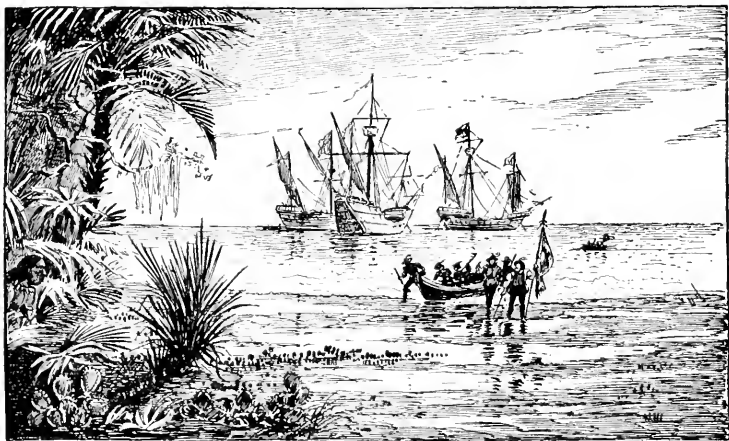
Columbus had almost as much trouble to get his sailors as his ships. Men were afraid to go with him. Many of those who sailed with him were forced to do so by order of the king, and went on board his ships full of fear. There were one hundred and twenty persons in all in the expedition which set sail from the port of Palos, in Spain, on the 3d of August, 1492, one of the days to be remembered in the history of the world.

The Voyage of Discovery.—Let us stop here and think of the task before our bold mariner. He had set sail on the most important voyage that had ever been undertaken in the history of mankind. Day by day his ships left the known world farther behind them. Day by day new wonders and new terrors rose before them. They sailed far into that vast ocean upon which no soul had ever before ventured far from land. Their fears increased as they went onward. The needle of the compass no longer pointed exactly north. The winds blew them steadily westward; but these same winds might hinder them from ever coming back. They were scared by the distance they had gone, though Columbus was wise enough not to let them know how far this was.

The men demanded to be taken back; they almost broke

into open mutiny, and some of them talked of throwing Columbus overboard and going back without him. Yet he was not to be turned from his purpose. He had set sail for India, and he was determined to go on. He was still sure that land lay beyond the seas, and that in time they would reach it.

Approach to Land.—Two months of this wonderful voyage passed away. Then the hearts of the sailors grew glad as their eyes beheld welcome signs. Land birds were seen flying about the ships. One of the men picked up out of the water a branch of a tree, on which there were fresh red



THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

berries. A piece of carved wood floated past them, and also some drifting sea-weed, with live crabs clinging to it. Hope now took the place of fear; all eyes looked far ahead in search of land.

At last it came. During the night before the 12th of October a distant light was seen shining across the waters.

When morning came Columbus, from the deck of his little ship, gazed with joy and triumph on the green shores of the land he had so long hoped to see. There it lay before him, bright and beautiful,—a sunny island, covered with forest trees,—a scene of beauty on which the eyes of civilized man had never before gazed.

The voyage was over; the victory was gained. The greatest discovery in human history had been made. Yet he who made it never knew how great his work had been. To the day of his death Columbus believed that it was the coast of India he had reached, and he gave the name of Indians to the strange, red-skinned natives who crowded out of the woods to gaze with wonder on his vessels.

It was in this way that the natives of America came to be called Indians, after a country thousands of miles away. Little did Columbus dream of the great continent of America, with its plains and mountains, its lakes and forests, peopled then only by savages, but which was in time to become the seat of one of the greatest and noblest of nations.

The Landing of Columbus.—At the break of day, with waving banners and ringing music, Columbus was rowed to the shore. He was richly dressed in scarlet, and bore in his hand the great banner of Spain, with its rich hues of red and gold. The captains of the other vessels bore the banner designed by Columbus himself, in the centre of which was a green cross. On reaching the shore the admiral knelt and kissed the ground; then rising, he drew his sword, and declared that the island which he had discovered belonged to the King and Queen of Spain. The natives looked on in wonder and admiration. They did not dream of the misery all this meant for them.

The poor natives supposed that the white men had come from heaven. Columbus gave them glass beads, and in

return they gave what they had,—parrots and balls of cotton. They wore some ornaments made of gold, and Columbus asked them by signs where gold was to be found. They pointed to the south. The sailors returned to their ships and sailed south among the beautiful islands of those seas until they reached the large island now known as Hayti. Columbus named it Hispaniola. From there they sailed back to Spain.

The Reception in Spain.—The excitement in Spain was very great when Columbus and his companions returned with their remarkable story. Men heard with wonder of lands beyond the seas, inhabited by a race of red-skinned savages, and rich beyond their dreams. It was said that the sands of every river shone with grains of gold, that the meanest Indians wore ornaments of gold and jewels, and that the walls of the houses glittered with pearls. None of these stories were too wild for men to believe, and many grew eager to visit this New World of wealth and splendor.

Columbus and his men entered the streets of Barcelona in a grand procession to meet the King and Queen of Spain. The red Indians, with their decorations of tropical feathers and golden ornaments, were looked upon with wonder. The bright-winged birds, the strange-shaped parrots, the rare plants and fruits, the unknown fabrics which were displayed in the procession, all excited admiration. Columbus rode triumphantly onward, in rich attire, surrounded by a brilliant cavalcade of Spanish nobles, to receive the high honors bestowed upon him by the king and queen. Europe had never seen a procession like this, for never before had the wonders of a new world been shown to the eyes of the Old World, as Europe was afterwards called.

Yet this was almost the last happy moment in the life of

the great discoverer. The remainder of his life was saddened by the injustice of men and the ingratitude of his sovereigns. He made three other voyages to America, and in the third voyage discovered the main-land of South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco River. From one of his voyages he was sent home in chains by his enemies. He had not even the honor of giving his name to the continent he had discovered. The name of America was taken from Amerigo Vespucci, whose account of the New World was the first to be printed. Columbus died in 1506, of a disease brought on by his hardships, troubles, and sufferings, a victim of the ingratitude of Spain. He gave orders that the chains which had been so shamefully fastened on his limbs should be buried in the grave with him.

II.—LATER VOYAGES.

The discovery of America by Columbus was the greatest event that had taken place for hundreds of years. If such a discovery should be made in our days, we may be sure that it would not be long before many vessels would be off to the new land. But in those days men were poor and news spread slowly. Ships were few and small, and kings and people had not much money. Most of what they had was spent in wars. Spain sent vessels from time to time to the rich islands which Columbus had discovered, but the other nations were very slow to send out ships.

The Cabots.—England was the first to follow Spain. The town of Bristol, in England, was then a great shipping port. There lived in this town a merchant named John Cabot, who was born at Venice. This man wished to go on a voyage of discovery, and got permission from the king, Henry VII., to do so. He fitted up a ship, took with him his son,

and sailed across the ocean until he reached the frozen coast of Labrador. This was in 1497.

Cabot's papers and maps are lost, and all we know of his voyage is that he found the country cold and barren, and saw a great many white bears. It is said that after his return he was called "The Great Admiral," and went about dressed in rich clothing and followed by crowds of people.

The next year his son, Sebastian Cabot, sailed to America. He also reached land at Labrador, but he kept on southward until he reached the coast of Virginia or Carolina. Like his father, he was received with honor on his return. Men called him "The Great Seaman," and Edward VI. gave him a pension. He lived to be very old, but the time and place of his death are unknown. Thus did England honor the men who discovered a continent.

The Fishermen.—Not long after this the daring fishermen of Europe began to make voyages across the ocean. Their fishing vessels reached Newfoundland and went on as far as Nova Scotia. One of these men, named John Denys, sailed up the Gulf of St. Lawrence in 1506. But they were after fish, not honor, and did not trouble themselves to report discoveries.

Verrazano.—France did not send an expedition to the New World till 1524. Then the thought came to Francis I., the king, that he had as much right as Spain to the wealth of these distant lands. So he had a ship made ready, and gave the command of it to an Italian seaman named Verrazano, who sailed away to the north as far as Nova Scotia. He entered the harbor of Newport, Rhode Island, where he found grape-vines growing, and began to trade with the Indians.

But the red men were afraid of their visitors, and would not let them land. They let down their goods to the boats with ropes from the tops of steep rocks. We do not know what

these goods were, but they would take nothing in exchange but knives, fish-hooks, and tools for cutting. These savages seemed to know well what would be of use to them.

Now we may know what gave Spain, England, and France the claim to these new lands. They sent ships across the ocean and took a look at them from the sea, and then said that all the land they had seen belonged to them. As for the Indians, no one thought that they had any claim to the country. They were looked on as little better than so many flies, that might be brushed aside by any one that was strong enough to do it.

Cartier's Voyages.—Francis I. was busy in wars with his neighbors, and did not send out any more ships for ten years. Then two ships set sail under a captain named Jacques Cartier. These ships entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence, where Cartier landed and set up a cross, with the king's coat of arms fastened to it. This was done to claim the country for the King of France.



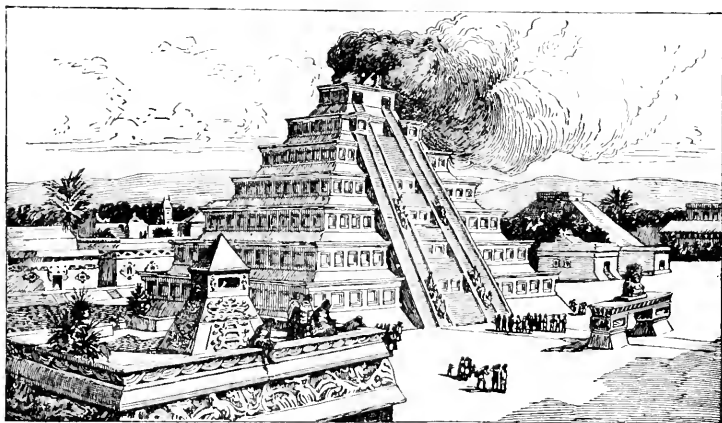
PONCE DE LEON.

Cartier made two more voyages, and sailed up the great St. Lawrence River as far as where the city of Montreal now stands. He called the country Canada from the Indian word "Kannatha," which means village, but which he thought was the Indian name for the whole country.

Ponce de Leon.—While the English and French were making these discoveries the Spaniards were not idle. They were sending ships from Spain and from the West Indies, and many discoveries and settlements were made. One adventurer, named Ponce de Leon, set out in 1512 on a romantic voyage. He had heard of a magical fountain

which would bring back youth to every man who bathed in its waters. As he was growing old, he was eager to find this wonderful fountain, that he might bathe in it and be young again. In his search for it he found a new country, which he called Florida. But he did not discover the fountain, and got death instead of life from his effort.

Balboa.—Another Spaniard, named Balboa, crossed the isthmus which connects North and South America, and



AN AZTEC TEMPLE.

looked with wonder on the waters of that great Pacific Ocean which no white man's eyes had ever seen before. He had made a long and dangerous journey over mountains and through fierce tribes of Indians, but he was paid for all his trouble when he saw, from the summit of a lofty hill, the waters of that great ocean, brightly shining in the rays of the sun. Never had man made a more glorious discovery, or human eyes gazed on a nobler sight.

Three years after the death of Balboa, a Spanish fleet, under Fernando Magellan, sailed round South America,

through the strait that bears his name, and came out on the waters of this great ocean. Magellan's ships were the first that ever sailed round the globe, and proved in this way that the earth is round.

Before many years had passed the Spaniards did some bold and marvellous deeds on the American continent. One captain, named Cortez, with a few hundred men, conquered the great empire of Mexico; and another, named Pizarro, did the same in the rich kingdom of Peru. They sent to Spain great quantities of gold and silver. But the Indians were treated by them with much cruelty, and millions of the red men died of hardship before the Spaniards had been many years in their land.

Another Spaniard, named Narvaez, landed in Florida in 1528, and went far to the north. He and his comrades were in search of gold; but instead of rich cities, like those of Mexico, they found only swamps and forests and fighting Indians, and of three hundred only four came back alive.

Hernando de Soto.—There is one more Spaniard about whom we must speak, for he was the first white man whose eyes fell upon the great Mississippi River, and his adventures were very interesting. While the other nations of Europe were sending ships to look at the coast of the New World, Hernando de Soto was wandering far through its interior and making important discoveries.



DE SOTO.

In 1539, De Soto landed in Florida with an army of about six hundred men, and with plenty of arms and provisions. He was a soldier who had been in Peru with Pizarro, and he wished to conquer Florida

as Pizarro had conquered Peru. The whole country to the far west was then called Florida, and De Soto expected to find there great cities and much gold and silver, such as had been found in Peru and Mexico. He did not dream that he would find only tribes of poor savages, with no treasures of any value to him, and that he would never leave their country alive.

De Soto's Expedition.—The overland march of the Spaniards was a long and tiresome one. The men soon wanted to go back, but De Soto would not listen to them. From time to time the Indians gave him pearls, or ornaments of gold, and this kept him full of hope. He felt sure there must be rich nations ahead, and he kept marching on and on, seeking the gold which he never found.

The Indians were angry at seeing these strangers in their country, and at the harm done them by some of the Spaniards, and many fierce battles took place. The Spaniards were always victorious, but numbers of them were killed, and they suffered much from the want of food.

De Soto led his army along the coast lands of the Gulf of Mexico, through tribe after tribe of Indians. These men in iron armor, with their prancing horses and shining arms, their banners and music and waving plumes, must have been a strange vision to the ignorant savages. But the natives soon found that those whom they at first took to be gods were only men, and very cruel men, and they fought them at every step.

The Mississippi.—Yet De Soto kept on. In time he reached a point near where the city of Memphis now stands. Here, to his delight, he saw before him a mighty river, the great stream now known as the Mississippi. It was with proud eyes that the Spaniards gazed on this noble stream, which they were the first white men to behold.

They soon had to cross this river to escape the Indians, and they roamed for many miles through the country on the other side. The Indians here wished to be friendly, but the Spaniards treated them badly, and they became angry and tried to kill the whites.

For three years De Soto and his men had been in the wilds of America, and had found nothing but hard marching, fighting, and the pangs of hunger. At length they decided to return to their own country. But the bold leader did not live to see his native land again. Worn out with his toil, he died on the banks of the great river he had discovered, and was buried in its waters to save his body from the fury of the Indians. He was sunk in the waves at dead of night, and his followers began to build themselves boats, for they did not dare to try to return by land.

When their boats were ready they launched them on the stream, and for seventeen days they floated down its waters. For fifty days more they sailed about in the Gulf of Mexico, until they reached a small Spanish settlement, from which they were sent to the island of Cuba.

They had gone out strong in number and hope and splendid in dress and arms. They came back a few ragged and half-starved men, without gold to show, and with only battles and sufferings to tell of. And so ended one of the greatest and proudest of the Spanish expeditions in America.

III.—THE INDIANS.

Who owned the Land?—The English, the French, the Spanish, and other nations of Europe, as we have said, sent ships to America, and for a long time afterwards there were disputes and fights among them to decide who owned the land, and how it should be divided. Many good men now

think that it did not belong to any of them, but to the old inhabitants of the country, and that the white men were little better than land pirates.

Who were these old inhabitants? Everywhere that the white men had landed they had found tribes of red or copper-colored men, some of whom were gentle and friendly, others fierce and warlike. Before we go on with our story we must tell something about these people.

The Indians, as Columbus had named them, were found in every part of North and South America, and had been there for a long time. Some of them were civilized, but the most of them were savages, and lived in a very rude manner. The Indians of this country which we now know as the United States were all savages, and were a fierce and cruel people, who spent much of their time in killing one another. Many of them dwelt in the forests, and lived by hunting. Others raised crops of Indian corn, and dwelt in towns and villages.

The Mound-Builders.—Long ago, no one can tell how long, a people dwelt in this region who seem to have been very active and industrious. We know this because much of their work remains. In some of the Western States there are hills of earth, called by us *mounds*, which were made by the hands of men. Most of these are small, but some are very large.

In these mounds have been found tools of stone and other substances, pots made of burnt clay, stone pipes, pieces of copper, and many other things. Some of these were made with great care and skill. The Mound-Builders seem to have had different customs from the present Indians. Some of their mounds must have taken years to build and the labor of thousands of people.

Who these people were and what became of them nobody

knows. Most writers think they were driven away or killed by the Indians. Some think that they went south, and that the tribes which De Soto found there descended from them. These tribes had great mounds like those of the north, and had tools and ornaments, and many towns with temples and priests, and strong governments.

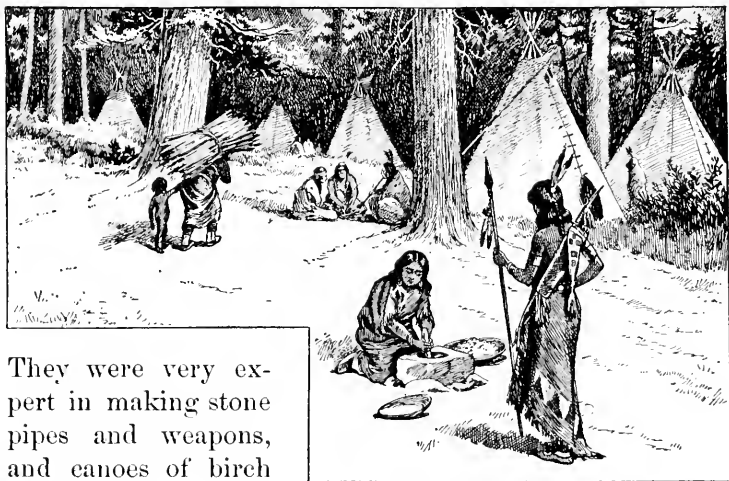
The Indians.—All we are sure of is that when white men came to America the country in which we now live was covered with forests, in which savages lived and hunted. These people were of a copper color, with black eyes and hair, and were divided into tribes. Some of them lived by raising corn and other vegetables, and others by hunting. Most of them dwelt in little tents covered with skin or bark, and called “wigwams,” but some tribes built large houses, in which many families lived together.

The Indians did not care much for their houses. They liked better to spend their time in the open air. They were very fond of roving about through the forests, hunting wild animals and fighting with one another. They dressed in the skins of these animals, painted their faces and bodies, and ornamented themselves with feathers and the claws of wild beasts. All the hair of their head was shaved off, except one lock, called the scalp-lock. When one of them was killed in war this lock was used to pull off his scalp, or the skin of his head. The Indians were very proud of the scalps which they took in war.

They were fond of fighting, and very cruel to their prisoners. It was their custom to tie these to a stake or tree, heap wood round them, and burn them to death. And they tortured them in every cruel way they could. The Indians fought with bows and arrows, and with stone hatchets called “tomahawks.” But after the whites came to America they got iron hatchets and fire-arms, and dressed them-

selves in blankets instead of the skins they had worn before. Some tribes built forts of timber, often in the midst of swamps. These were strong, and not easy to capture.

Home Life.—At home the women had to do all the work. The men were too proud to do much but hunt and fight.



AN INDIAN VILLAGE SCENE.

They were very expert in making stone pipes and weapons, and canoes of birch bark in which they paddled about the

rivers. These canoes were very light. They could be carried long distances through the forests, and they floated lightly in the water. Fire was obtained by rubbing two sticks together until they became so hot as to break into a blaze.*

The food of the Indians consisted of corn and a few

* Without fire civilization could not exist, so this method of making fire may be looked upon as one of the first steps towards the high civilization which we now enjoy.

vegetables they raised, and of the game they killed in the forests. They had tobacco, of which they were very fond, and which they soon taught the white men to smoke. In return the white men taught them to drink whisky,—a much worse gift than that of tobacco. Some writers think that whisky has killed more Indians than the musket.

Government.—The tribes of the Indians were divided into smaller bodies, which may be called clans. Each clan paid great respect to some animal, which it called its *totem*, such as the wolf, the tortoise, the bear, etc. The clans had chiefs whom they called sachems, who ruled them in peace, and other chiefs who ruled them in war. A number of such clans formed a tribe, and several tribes joined together formed a league or confederacy. One of these leagues was known as the Iroquois, or the Six Nations, who lived in the region now known as New York, and there were others elsewhere.

Religion.—The religious ideas of the Indians were very simple. Each Indian thought that he was taken care of by the spirit of the animal that formed his *totem*. He had great respect for this animal, though he did not mind killing the *totem* of other Indians. Most of them believed in spirits of the winds and stars, and many of them thought that there was a Great Spirit, who ruled over all men and all things.

Their priests they called “medicine men.” These were their doctors as well as priests, and did everything by charms and spells. Many of them were great rogues. The tribes had religious songs and dances, and many other ceremonies, some of which were strange and noisy, and some very painful and cruel.

For money the Indians used round pieces of sea-shells, in which they bored holes and strung them on strings. This they called wampum. They knew nothing about reading

and writing, but used simple marks and signs by which they could tell one another many things.

Their Sagacity.—The Indians were brave and bold, but could not be trusted. They would do anything to kill those whom they hated. They had wonderful skill in tracking their enemies through the wilds and forests. Where white men could see nothing, the Indians could see the marks of footsteps on the dead leaves or the dry ground, and could follow a trail for many miles as easily as a dog can follow an animal by its scent.

This made them very dangerous to the whites. They could travel very far in a day, and could go in a straight line through thick forests where the sun could not be seen. Many white travellers were captured and killed by them. But in time some of the whites learned the Indian ways, and could follow a trail as well as they.

The Southern Tribes.—In the country near the Gulf of



A PUEBLO INDIAN.

Mexico the Indians were more civilized than in the north. They had many towns or large villages, and their chiefs had much power. The sun was their god, and they had temples, with numbers of priests and much ceremony. Farther west, in the Rocky Mountain region, were tribes who built great stone houses, with hundreds of rooms, large enough for a whole tribe to live in one house. These are called the Pueblo Indians.

Quarrels with the Whites.—The Indians at first were friendly to the whites. They gave them land and were willing to help them in any way they could. But it was not long before quarrels began. Sometimes the white men were in the wrong, and sometimes the Indians, but dreadful scenes followed. The Indians would march silently through the forests and fall on the settlements, burning the houses and killing the people, or taking them away as prisoners. The whites would attack the tribes in return, and kill all the Indians they could.

But the whites were the strongest and drove the Indians back step by step, and took possession of nearly the whole country. The savages now own only a small portion of the great continent which was once all their own. But they are forced to live in peace, and they are happier and better off than when most of their time was spent in war and bloodshed.

IV.—FRENCH AND ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS.

Many years passed away before any white men came to live in the country which is now known as the United States. The Spaniards had many towns and rich colonies in the West Indies, in Mexico, and in South America, but the northern country was still left to the Indians. No one cared to settle on its shores. No gold or silver had been

found there, and people in those days seemed to think there was nothing else worth having. Since then we have learned that the soil of the United States is far more valuable than all the gold and silver which the Spaniards found in America.

Ribault's Colony.—It was not till 1562 that any settlers came. Then some Frenchmen crossed the ocean and built a fort at Port Royal, in South Carolina. They named the country Carolina, after Charles IX., the King of France. These men were known as Huguenots, or people of the Protestant religion, while the religion of France was the Catholic. They had left their country because they were badly treated on account of their difference in belief.

Jean Ribault, who brought them, soon went back to France. After he left the colony did not get on well. Most of the men were lazy and would not work, and the Indians soon refused to give them food. Many of them died, and those who remained alive built a rude sort of vessel and sailed away home.

The Florida Colony.—Two years afterwards another party of Frenchmen came to America and built a fort near the mouth of the St. John's River, in Florida. This colony was as idle as the other. The men spent their time in hunting for gold and fighting the Indians. They would not take the trouble to raise food from the earth, and they suffered from hunger till vessels came with food from France. Some of them turned pirates, and sailed away to rob the Spanish settlements.

St. Augustine.—The Spaniards were very angry when they learned that the French had settled in Florida. They claimed this country as their own, and sent out a party to take possession and to drive out the French. This party was led by a man named Menendez, who laid out a town

which he called St. Augustine. It is of interest to remember that this town, laid out in 1565, is the oldest town in the United States. The ruins of the old Spanish buildings may still be seen there.

The Massacre.—And now began those terrible wars of white men which have shed so much blood on the soil of this land. Up to that time the fighting had all been with the Indians, but now the whites began the dreadful work of killing one another. Menendez led his men through the woods and swamps of Florida to the French settlement. There they took Fort Carolina—the French fort—by surprise, and killed all the people they found in it, except a few who escaped to the woods.

The Spaniards did a more cruel deed than this. A part of the French had gone to attack St. Augustine, but their vessel was wrecked on the coast, and the men barely saved their lives. They wandered half starved through the woods till they found themselves in sight of St. Augustine.

Menendez told them that if they would come over the river into the town no harm should be done to them. But as fast as they came over he had their arms tied behind them, and he then set his soldiers on them and murdered them all. Four hundred men were slain in that awful massacre.

Menendez had these words placed on the trees near by: “I do this not as to Frenchmen, but as to Lutherans.” It was religious hatred that made him do this cruel deed.

The Massacre revenged.—When the news of this deed of bloodshed came to France the people were full of anger. One soldier, named Dominique de Gourgues, resolved to be revenged. He sailed for Florida with three small ships, and took Fort Carolina by surprise, as the Spaniards had before taken it from the French. There were more than three

hundred men in it, most of whom were killed. Only sixty were taken prisoners.

De Gourgues wrote the following words, and placed them where all could see: "I do this not to Spaniards, but to traitors, thieves, and murderers." Then he hanged all his prisoners, destroyed the fort, and sailed back to France. The murder of the Protestants had been terribly revenged.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert.—The English were the next people who tried to make settlements in America. Sir Humphrey Gilbert came across the ocean in 1583 to form a colony. But a storm arose, and the leader and his vessel, with all on board, went to the bottom. One of his ships reached England with the news of his loss.

Sir Walter Raleigh.—The next year a young man named Walter Raleigh, half-brother to Gilbert, sent an expedition to the New World, and in 1585 he sent seven ships with a hundred persons on board to make a settlement on Roanoke Island, on the coast of North Carolina.

These people soon got into trouble with the Indians, and all returned to England in an English vessel that happened to stop at the island. They took with them the first tobacco that was ever seen in Europe. Sir Walter Raleigh is said to have been the first man who smoked tobacco in Europe.

The story is told that a servant who came into his room while he was smoking thought that he was in flames, and threw a bucket of water over him to put out the fire.

The Lost Colony.—The next summer Raleigh sent another colony to Roanoke Island. A child, named Virginia Dare,



RALEIGH.

was born in this colony,—the first English child born in America.

There was war then between England and Spain, and it was three years before another vessel could be sent across the ocean. When it got to Roanoke Island the colony was gone. Not a man, woman, or child could be found. There were some letters cut in the bark of a tree, and that was all that was left to show that white men had ever been there.

Raleigh sent vessel after vessel to search for his lost colony, but no trace of it could ever be found. What became of the colonists no one will ever know. If the Indians knew they would not tell, and the secret died with them.

Other Expeditions.—No other efforts were made to place colonies in the region of the United States till after the year 1600, more than a century after the discovery by Columbus. One captain, named Bartholomew Gosnold, brought out a colony to America in 1602; but he took it back again, because he was short of food and the men feared they might starve.

The French were more successful than the English. In 1605 a Frenchman, named De Monts, placed a colony in Nova Scotia, at a place which he called Port Royal. This place, which became famous in after years, is on the coast of the Bay of Fundy. It was the first permanent French colony in America.

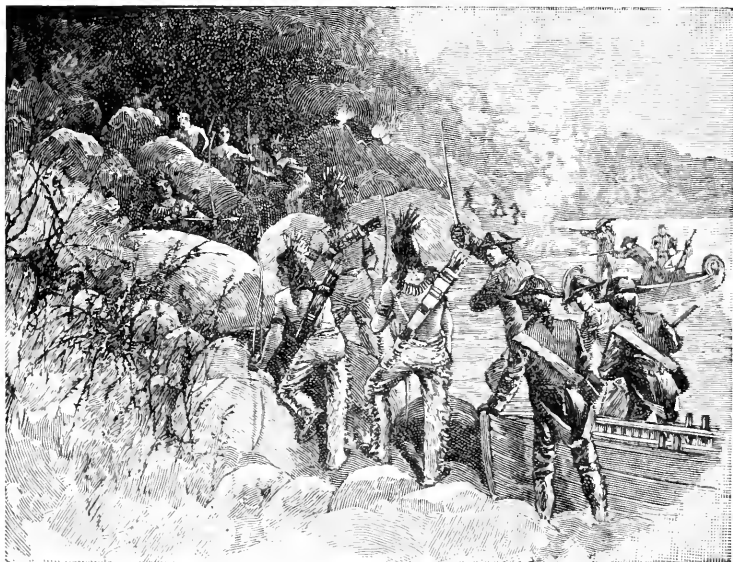
Champlain in America.—Before speaking of the English and Dutch colonies that were formed soon afterwards we must say something about the doings of a Frenchman, named Samuel de Champlain, who was the first white man that had much to do with the Indians of the north.

He went up the St. Lawrence River in 1603, and came again in 1608, when he founded the city of Quebec. This old

city still stands on the rocky hill where he placed it. It is a quaint, old-fashioned place, with many ancient houses.

Champlain was a bold and active man and very fond of travel and adventure. He had the hope that he might find a way across the country by the rivers and lakes, and so reach China. But there were savage Indians in his way. In what we know as the State of New York were the Iroquois tribes of Indians, or the "Five Nations" as they are usually called. Farther north were the Hurons and other tribes of the St. Lawrence, who were enemies of the Iroquois.

The First Indian Battle.—Champlain and some companions went in boats up the St. Lawrence and the St. John



BATTLE BETWEEN THE FRENCH AND INDIANS.

Rivers, while the Hurons and other tribes followed in their canoes. They were going to fight with their enemies, the

Iroquois, and the French had promised to help them. It was not long before the boats came out on a beautiful lake which the eyes of white men had never seen before. It is called Lake Champlain, after its discoverer.

On the shores of this lake they met the Iroquois, and a fierce battle began,—the first battle with the Indians in the northern part of the New World. The Iroquois were brave warriors and fought boldly, but when Champlain and the two white men who were with him stood forward and fired their muskets they were filled with terror. They had never seen anything of the kind before. The noise seemed to them like thunder. Their chiefs began to fall dead, with nothing to show what had killed them.

With a yell of fear the Indians fled. They left everything in their fright. Some of them were killed; more were taken prisoners. These the Hurons took back with them to torture and burn at the stake.

Champlain had many other adventures among the Indians. In 1614 he went south with a war party of Hurons, and made an attack on a fort of the Iroquois. The fight was a hard one, but the Hurons were driven off, and Champlain was twice wounded.

The Revenge of the Iroquois.—The Iroquois took a terrible revenge on their enemies. Champlain, whom they were afraid of, died in 1635. In 1648 they made an attack on the French in Canada, and killed a great many of them. The tribe of the Hurons was broken up and destroyed. For many years afterwards the Iroquois were lords of that region and kept the French shut up in their forts. They had ceased to fear the fire-arms of the whites.

The Iroquois consisted of five tribes, the Mohawks, the Oneidas, the Onondagas, the Cayugas, and the Senecas. Afterwards another tribe, the Tuscaroras, joined them, and

they became known as the "Six Nations." They gave much trouble to the whites in later years.

Henry Hudson.—There was one other voyage of which we must speak. This was made by the Dutch, who then were a very active nation, and thought they ought to have a share in the New World. So they sent across the ocean a vessel which had the odd name of the Half Moon. Its captain was Henry Hudson, an Englishman. This was in the year 1609.

The Half Moon sailed along the coast until it reached New York Bay. Then it went up this bay until it came into the great river which has ever since been known as Hudson River. Here some of the Indian chiefs came on board and received a fatal present from the hands of the captain. We have told how the tobacco of the Indians was taken to Europe. In return the white men brought brandy to the Indians. Hudson gave the chiefs some of this strong liquor to drink, and they became intoxicated. This was probably the first knowledge the Indians had of that poison which has since killed more of them than the rifle.

The Half Moon sailed up the river as far as it could go. On coming back the Dutch were attacked by the Indians, but some cannon were fired and the savages fled in the utmost terror. Hudson now sailed back to Europe with the story of the discovery he had made. He afterwards discovered Hudson Bay, which was also named after him.



THE HALF MOON IN THE HUDSON.

PART I.—QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

I. What was known of the world four hundred years ago? What was thought would happen to vessels that sailed out of sight of land? What is the mariner's compass? What journey did Marco Polo make? What did the Northmen discover? Who was Christopher Columbus? How did he think Asia could be reached? What troubles did he have? When did he sail on his voyage of discovery? Why were the sailors afraid? What made them think they were near land? On what day was land discovered? What were the inhabitants like? Why were they called Indians? Describe the landing of Columbus. What stories were told by the sailors when they returned to Spain? How was Columbus received? What was his history afterwards?

II. Who was John Cabot? Describe his voyage. What did Sebastian Cabot discover? What did the fishermen do? Describe the voyage of Verazano. What did Cartier do? Who was Ponce de Leon? What did he discover? What did Balboa discover? What conquests were made by Cortez and Pizarro? Where did Narvaez go? What did De Soto seek? Where did he journey? Describe his death and burial.

III. What kind of people were found in America? Who were the Mound-Builders? What relics did they leave? What were the Indians like? How did they live? How did they treat their prisoners? How did they fight? How did they live in their homes? How were they governed? What was the character of their religion? What did they use for money? What is said of their sagacity? Were the southern tribes more civilized than the northern? What did they worship? How did they receive the whites? How have the whites treated them?

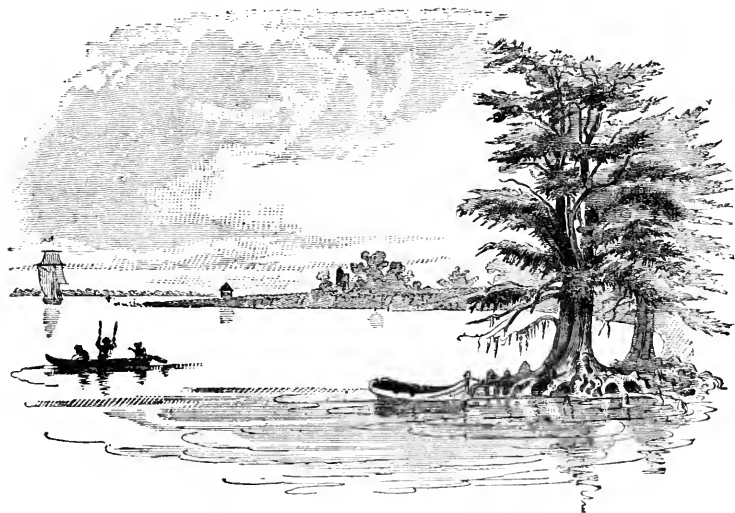
IV. Who first settled in the United States? How did Ribault's colony behave? Describe the Florida colony. When did the Spaniards lay out St. Augustine? What did Menendez do at Fort Carolina? How did he treat the shipwrecked Frenchmen? What did De Gourges do? When did Sir Humphrey Gilbert come to America? Where did Sir Walter Raleigh plant a colony? Tell how tobacco was first taken to Europe. What became of Raleigh's colony? When and where was the first permanent French colony formed? When did Champlain found Quebec? What did he hope to do? What lake did he discover? Describe his battle with the Iroquois. How did the Iroquois revenge themselves? What river did Henry Hudson discover? How did he act with the Indian chiefs?

PART II.

THE ENGLISH COLONIES.

I.—VIRGINIA.

The English Companies.—In 1606 two companies were formed in England to make settlements in America. One



JAMESTOWN POINT, LOOKING UP THE RIVER.

of these was called the London Company, and the other the Plymouth Company. At that time the whole country

between the French settlements in the north and the Spanish settlements in the south was named Virginia, after Queen Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen of England. Now, only a small portion of this broad region is called Virginia.

Both companies sent out colonies in 1607. One of these, sent by the Plymouth Company, settled on the coast of Maine; but the people were not satisfied, and went back the next year. The other, sent by the London Company, was told to land on Roanoke Island, where Raleigh's lost colony had been; but a storm drove the vessels into Chesapeake Bay. Here the colonists discovered a beautiful river, which they named the James, after the King of England. They landed at a point some distance up the river, and formed a settlement which they called Jamestown.

This colony was like all those before it. Nobody wanted to work. Some of the men thought they could cross the country to the Pacific Ocean. Others spent their time hunting for gold. They found a yellow substance which they thought was gold, and sent a ship-load of it to England. But it was nothing but iron pyrites, or "fool's gold," and of no value whatever; so the gold-hunters, who had fancied themselves rich, soon found themselves poor again.



JOHN SMITH.

Captain John Smith.—By good luck this colony had with it a man who was worth more to it than a mine of gold. This was Captain John Smith, a celebrated soldier, who had been in wars in Europe, and had gone through many strange adventures. Captain Smith was a very active man. He went to work himself and kept the colonists at work with him

cutting down trees and building houses. Those who would not work were given nothing to eat. Some of them swore very much, but he soon cured them of this. When night came he brought up the swearers and had a can of cold water poured down their sleeves for every time they had sworn during the day. We may imagine that laziness and swearing were quickly broken up in that colony.

Captain Smith spent much of his time in exploring the bay and the country. On one of these journeys he was taken prisoner by the Indians, who killed his companions. They were about to kill him too, but he saved his life by showing them a small compass which he had with him. The movements of the magnetic needle seemed to them the work of magic, so they let him live, and brought him before their great chief, Powhatan. He surprised them still more by writing a letter to his friends and receiving an answer from them. The Indians could not understand how a piece of paper could talk. Smith's friends understood what was on it, and the savages thought the paper must have spoken to them.

Pocahontas.—But Powhatan did not like the English, and he decided that his prisoner should be put to death. Captain Smith tells us that he was laid on the ground, with his head on a stone, and that Powhatan had lifted a club to dash out his brains, when a young Indian girl named Pocahontas, the daughter of the chief, rushed in and begged her father not to kill him. So his life was spared.

Pocahontas afterwards married an Englishman named



POCAHONTAS.

Rolfe, and went with him to England. She did not live long after she reached there. Captain Smith had other adventures with the Indians and much trouble with the colonists. In 1609 he was badly hurt by the explosion of a bag of gunpowder, and went back to England. He never returned to Virginia.

The Starving Time.—As soon as Captain Smith left the colony everything went wrong. Nobody would work; they ate up all their provisions; and the Indians were made so angry that they would not bring them any food. A terrible time followed. The foolish people soon found themselves starving. There were nearly five hundred of them, but in six months only sixty were alive. In a little time more not a soul of them would have been living if a vessel had not come in with provisions. This period was long known as “the starving time.”

A new governor, Lord Delaware, came out in this vessel. He was a sensible man, and things soon went well again. More colonists came, and the land was divided into farms and much food raised. The starving time had taught them a useful lesson.

Tobacco Culture.—In 1612 the colonists began to raise tobacco. Much of the soil was given to this new crop, and so little corn was raised that there began to be danger again of want of food. In 1619 a Dutch ship came up the James with twenty negroes on board. These were sold to the colonists, and were the first slaves brought to America.

The negroes were not the only human beings that were sold to the colonists. Until this time the colony had consisted only of men; now, young women were sent over from England and sold to the colonists as wives. The price paid for a wife was one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco.

Sixty more women were sent afterwards, and the price rose to one hundred and fifty pounds of tobacco.

The Indian Massacre.—Two years afterwards, in 1622, when much of the country around Jamestown had been settled, the Indians formed a plan to kill all the white people in the colony. They pretended to be very friendly, and brought deer and fish and other things to sell. But suddenly they drew out their weapons and began to kill the settlers. Men, women, and children were cut to pieces, and in one morning three hundred and forty-nine persons were slain.

Jamestown was warned in time, and was saved, but very few of the whites were left alive in the outer settlements. A fierce war followed. The Indians were shot down wherever they were seen. The English offered peace to them, and then rushed on them when they were at work in their corn-fields, and killed a great many of them.

Another Indian massacre took place in 1644, after which the red men were driven far back into the country, and did not give any trouble for many years.

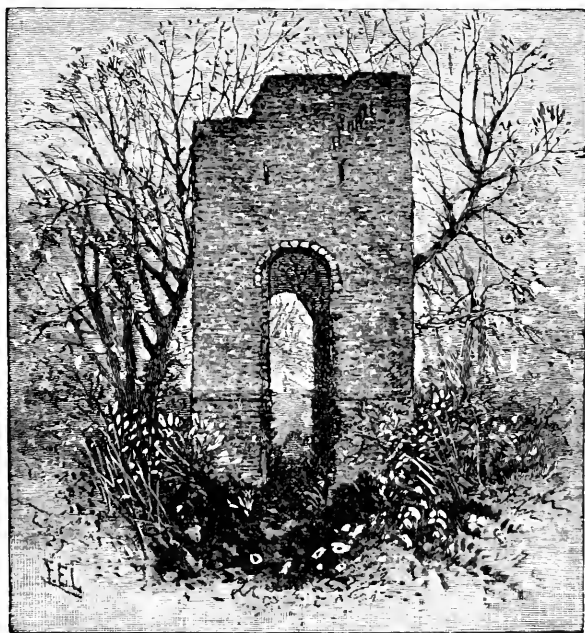
Bacon's Rebellion.—During these years, and for a long time afterwards, the people of Virginia had trouble with their governors. They were not permitted to manage their own affairs, and much bitter feeling arose. One governor, named Berkeley, was such a tyrant that the people would no longer submit to him.

The Indians were again at war with the whites, and a young man named Nathaniel Bacon raised a company and drove them away. This was in 1676. The governor said that Bacon was a traitor, because he had raised his company without permission. But the people were so angry that they came to Bacon's help, and fighting took place. The governor was driven out of Jamestown, and the town itself

burned to the ground. Nothing of Jamestown now remains except the ruined walls of an old church.

Soon after this Bacon died. Berkeley now got into power again and began to revenge himself by hanging his enemies. More than twenty of the leaders of the people were hung.

When the king heard of this he ordered Berkeley to come



RUINS OF THE OLD CHURCH-TOWER, JAMESTOWN, VIRGINIA.

home, and sent out governors in his own name to the colony. Other troubles arose, but for the next hundred years Virginia grew and prospered, and many of its people became rich and honored.

II.—THE PILGRIMS AND THE PURITANS.

The Pilgrims.—At the time that Captain John Smith was having his adventures with the Indians in Virginia, and Champlain was fighting with the Iroquois in New York,



LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS.

some English people had found that they could not live in peace at home. They thought that every man ought to have a right to read the Bible for himself and form his own opinion about it. But the government said that they must believe what the Church of England taught. As they could not do this, they were treated badly by the government; so they went to Holland and lived there for a number of years.

Then they made up their minds to cross the ocean and settle in America. They were afraid that if they stayed in

Holland their children might forget their language and become in all things like the Dutch. One hundred and two of them set sail from England in a little vessel called the *Mayflower*. They did not know just to what part of America they would go, but storms made them land at a place near Cape Cod.

It was then the month of December of the year 1620. The weather was cold and the ground was covered with snow, but the people decided to settle in that region, so they landed at a place which had been named Plymouth by Captain John Smith, who had explored that coast several years before. On reaching the shore they fell on their knees and thanked God for having brought them in safety to this new land. These people are known as Pilgrims, because they had left their homes and crossed the ocean on account of their religion, like the old-time pilgrims to the Holy Land.

The First Winter.—The Pilgrims were not idle, like the men of the other colonies we have described. They went to work at once to build a house to shelter them and their goods. And they formed a government of their own, in which every man was to have a vote and to be the equal of every other man. But they had great hardships to endure, and nearly half of them died before spring.

When the winter was gone they did not spend their time hunting for gold or wandering about the country. They kept on building until they had a house for each family, and also began to till the soil. The Indians were friendly, and showed them how to plant corn. They had with them a military man named Captain Miles Standish, but he was a very different person from Captain John Smith. He was an old soldier who had joined the colony to do their fighting for them, if any was necessary,—a little man, very short, but of a hot temper,—and it was not long before he began

the work of killing Indians. He was so bold that on one occasion he stabbed an Indian chief in the midst of his tribe.

The Plymouth colony was not like any of the others formed in America. The people had not been sent out by any company, and had no masters beyond the seas. They were free to serve God and to take care of themselves in their own way. They elected a governor and other officers, and formed a little republic of their own. They suffered from the cold and from want of food, but the fishing was good and there were plenty of clams, so they managed to live. The land was soon divided into farms, and every man worked for himself, and before long enough corn was raised to give them all food.

Canonicus.—The Indians at first were friendly, but some of them became uneasy when they saw that the white men intended to stay in their country. So Canonicus, the chief of the tribe of Narragansetts, sent them a bundle of arrows with a snake-skin tied around them. This meant that if the whites did not leave the land the Indians would make war upon them. But the governor took the snake-skin and filled it with powder and bullets; then he sent it back to Canonicus. The savages were scared when they saw what had been sent them. They were afraid to receive it, and it passed from hand to hand and finally came back to the governor at Plymouth. So there was no war at that time. In 1623 the Indians formed a conspiracy to murder the settlers; but Captain Standish discovered it and killed the ring-leaders. After that the Indians kept quiet for years.

The Massachusetts Bay Colony.—Plymouth was part of the country which the king had granted to the Plymouth Company, so that the colony came under the charter of this company. But they continued to govern themselves in their

own way, and paid no attention to the company. Other people came out from time to time. In 1629 five vessel-loads sailed over from England and settled at a place in Massachusetts Bay, which they called Salem.

The next year eight hundred more came. There were now about a thousand men in the colony of Massachusetts Bay. These were not all poor people, like those at Plymouth. Some of them were rich, and many of them were educated. Like the Pilgrims, it was religious trouble that brought them over the ocean. They were called Puritans, and had left England because they could not worship God in their own way at home.

The Charter.—The king had given them a charter by which they gained the right to govern themselves. They did not leave this charter in England, for they did not wish to be ruled by a company in London, but they brought it across the ocean with them. This was a bold step. The reign of liberty in America began with that charter.

These colonists had much to endure. Many of them died. But there were no idle men among them, and they sought for corn instead of gold, so that they were soon comfortable. Settlements were made all around Massachusetts Bay. Boston, Roxbury, Charlestown, and other places were added to Salem. The colony grew much faster than that of Plymouth.

Representative Government.—As we have said, the government was at first in the hands of all the people. They met together in the churches and elected their officers, and decided any question that came before them. But in 1634 this was no longer easy to do. The people had increased till there were more than three thousand of them. These were settled at twenty different places along the sea-shore. They could not all come together to decide questions, and

they chose persons to act for them. These met together at Boston, where they made laws and elected officers. The first assembly of this kind in America had been formed in Virginia in 1619, but it did not have the power of the Boston assembly, which made all the laws of the colony; and these were carried out by a governor elected by themselves, not by one sent from England.

Other Colonies.—The Puritans kept on coming across the ocean, so that in ten years there were about twenty thousand people in New England. These were widely spread through the country. Some of them settled in Connecticut. The Dutch had built a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut River, but they were driven away by the English. There were settlements also in New Hampshire and Maine.

Roger Williams.—And now we have to tell of some very wrong doings of the Puritans. They had come to America because they were not allowed to worship God in peace at home; but they soon began to say that nobody should worship God in New England except in their way. One minister, named Roger Williams, declared that the magistrates had no right to tell a man what his religion should be. He said also that the white men had no claim to the land unless they paid the Indians for it.

The Puritans thought that this was dangerous talk, and declared that no man should preach such doctrines in their churches. Williams would not be silent, so they drove him out of the colony. He went into the forests, where the Indians took care of him. At length he reached Narragansett Bay, and crossed it in an Indian canoe to a place which he called Providence. The Indians loved the young exile, and Canonieus, the chief, gave him a large tract of land.

Rhode Island.—There were other persons besides Roger Williams who could not live in peace with the Puritans.

Many of these followed him. In the settlement which they formed every one was allowed to think on religious subjects as he pleased. It was one of the first places in the world in which there was full religious liberty and in which no man was persecuted for his opinions.

One of the new settlers, named William Coddington, bought an island from the Indians, which was called Rhode Island. This afterwards became the name of the State. A charter was given to the colony, and its people slowly grew in numbers. They were so afraid of tyrants that when Roger Williams refused to be governor the colony went without one for forty years. Williams was very just and kind to the Indians, and they looked on him as their best friend.

The Quakers.—But the Puritans soon did worse things than to drive Roger Williams into the wilderness. When it was known in England that there was a colony in America formed by people who wished to worship God in peace and freedom, others besides the Puritans made haste to come to this free land. Among these were a number of the people known as Quakers, who had been very harshly treated in England.

Several of these came to Plymouth and Salem, but they soon found that they were no better off in America than in England. They would not go to war, or pay taxes, or attend the Puritan churches, and they would not leave the colony when they were ordered to do so. Some of them grew so excited as to be half crazy, and would come into the meeting-house on Sunday with clothes made of sack-cloth, and with ashes on their heads. They did other things more foolish still.

The Persecution.—As they would not leave the colony, the Puritans began to persecute them. Some of them were whipped in the streets, and others were branded with hot

iron. Four of them were hanged. And not only the excited ones, but the quiet and well-behaved ones were treated with great severity. The Puritans have been much blamed for this cruelty. They had left England because men would not let them think as they pleased, and now they were acting the same way to others who wished to think as they pleased. But they could not drive the Quakers out by severity, and they finally let them alone.

The Salem Witchcraft.—It was not long before they began to persecute another set of people. In those days all ignorant persons and some learned ones believed in witches. It was thought that certain people had the power to bewitch and hurt others by a sort of magic. That was the belief all over Europe, and thousands of persons were put to death as witches.

Some poor persons in Salem were accused of being witches, and a court was held to try them. Very strange things were said to have been done, and fifty of them were declared guilty. Twenty of these were hanged. The excitement spread, and people of high character were accused of witchcraft. And now the wiser people began to fear there must be something wrong in the public belief. When these respectable persons were brought to trial, the judges said that such persons could not be witches, and set them free. The foolish notion died away as quickly as it had risen. All sensible people were very much ashamed of themselves for having believed in such folly; and they could not easily forget that they had put to death innocent persons for a crazy delusion. This excitement continued from 1688 to 1693.

Mode of Government.—The New England colonies all followed Massachusetts in her mode of government. The English kings had left the colonists to act as they pleased, and there was no company in England that had anything to

do with them, so the people were as free as if they had had no connection with England. In all the other colonies there were governors sent out by the king, the companies, or the proprietors; but the Puritans chose their own governors and made their own laws.

We have already told what the government was like. But in 1643 a new step in political conditions was made. The four colonies of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Haven, and Plymouth joined themselves into a league, or confederacy, and each colony chose two men to represent it. This was something like the present government of the United States, and the meeting of deputies from the colonies was like a little Congress. New England was a free republic at that early date.

The Charters revoked.—But the people of New England were not left at ease after Charles II. became king. He did not wish them to have so much liberty, and he declared that the charter of Massachusetts was no longer good, and that he would rule the colony himself.

Just then Charles II. died, but the next king, James II., was still more severe. He said that all the New England colonies were his, that he would make the laws and levy the taxes, and that the people should have no voice in the government. He sent Sir Edmund Andros to be royal governor, and demanded that all the charters should be given up.

But the new governor did not succeed very well. When he came to Hartford the assembly met to decide whether they should obey his order and give up their charter. The charter was laid on the table. It was evening and candles were lighted. Suddenly the candles all went out and the room was left in darkness. When they were relighted the charter was gone. It is said that one of the members had flung his cloak over the candles and carried off the charter,

which he hid in a hollow tree, where it stayed for years. This tree was long known as the Charter Oak.

While the governor was in Boston news reached there that the people of England had risen against the king. So the governor was imprisoned, and the people took the government again into their own hands. But it was not long before the new king sent them a new governor.

III.—INDIAN WARS OF NEW ENGLAND.

English and Indians.—The settlers of New England very soon had trouble with the Indians. Shortly after the Pilgrims landed a chief had come to them, with the words, "Welcome, Englishmen." He had learned these words from some of those people who had crossed the ocean in search of fish. But before long this friendly feeling passed away. The English did not treat the Indians well. Captain Standish was very stern and severe with them, and killed several of them. And the settlers went farther and farther into the land, and came over the ocean in such numbers that the red men began to fear that all their country would be taken from them.

The Pequot War.—Yet it was not in Massachusetts but in Connecticut that the first fighting took place. Here there was a fierce and warlike tribe called the Pequots, who became very angry on seeing the white men settling on their lands. They began to kill the whites whenever they found them alone. The English killed some of them in return, and then a deadly war began. No white man could leave the fort without danger of being murdered by the savages.

The settlers soon made up their minds to put an end to this. So they got together a party of soldiers and sent them against the Pequot fort. There were ninety white men

and several hundred friendly Indians, led by Captain John Mason. The Indian fort was near where the town of Stonington is now built. It was made of trunks of trees, about twelve feet high, set close together in the ground. The Indian allies were left outside while the English forced their way into the fort and set fire to the wigwams of the Pequots. Then the fight began in the smoke and flame, and nearly all the Pequots were killed, while only two white men were slain.

There were some Pequots outside the fort, but these were followed and the most of them killed. This battle so frightened the Indians that there was very little trouble with them in New England for forty years afterwards.

King Philip's War.—The next war with the Indians began in 1675. The tribe of the Wampanoags had always been friendly with the whites; but the old sachem died and his son, named Philip, became sachem. He hated the whites, and got some of the other tribes to join him in a war against them. One of these tribes was the Narragansetts, of Rhode Island, who had, until now, been kept friendly by Roger Williams.

The war that followed was a terrible one. The Indians were no longer afraid to touch powder and bullets. They had thrown aside the bow and arrow and taken the musket for their weapon, and they now attacked the settlements in all directions. They drove off the cattle, destroyed the crops, and burned the houses, while many of the white people were murdered. Several towns were taken by the Indians and burned, and the whole country was thrown into a state of terror.

Defeat of the Narragansetts.—But the killing of a few hundred persons could not drive the white people from the country, for by this time there were about sixty thousand of

them in New England. They made up their minds to punish the Indians and put an end to the war. So a force of fifteen hundred men was sent against the Narragansetts, who had a strong fort in the centre of a great swamp. They thought they were safe there; but the soldiers got into their fort, killed a thousand of them, and forced the others to flee for their lives. This was in the winter, and many more of the savages died from cold and hunger, as they had no place of shelter and very little to eat.

Death of Philip.—This dreadful affair broke the power of the Indians; but parties of them wandered about the settlements, and killed men, women, and children wherever they could. The people grew furious at this, and hunted the savages like wild beasts. Philip and his followers were chased from place to place. In August, 1676, they went to Mount Hope, Rhode Island, and here they were surprised by a party of soldiers and Indians. Philip started up to flee for his life, when he was shot by an Indian and fell dead.

This ended the war. All danger from the Indians was at an end, except in Maine and New Hampshire, where the settlements were weak. The whites had suffered terribly. About six hundred of them had been murdered. Twelve or thirteen towns, with about six hundred houses, had been burned. But the tribes were broken up, and many of the Indians sent to the West Indies to be sold for slaves.

The First French and Indian Wars.—The next troubles in New England were stirred up by the French, who began a war in Europe with the English in 1689, and again in 1702. The French and English in America were not satisfied to let all the fighting be done on the other side of the ocean, but thought that they must do what they could to kill one another, though they had nothing to do with the war. Many of the Northern Indians took the side of the

French, and came down from Canada to attack the English settlements. Farm-houses and villages were burned, and hundreds of the people were killed or carried off as prisoners. The whole country was kept in a state of terror for years.

Mrs. Dustin's Escape.—We may tell the story of one of these prisoners. This was a brave woman named Mrs. Dustin, who was carried off from the town of Haverhill, in Massachusetts, with her baby, her nurse, and a young boy. The Indians soon killed the baby, but they took the others for many miles through the forest. Mrs. Dustin found out that the Indians were going to torture and kill them at the end of their journey, so she resolved to try to escape. They were now on an island in the Merrimac River, and that night the Indians lay down to sleep, not dreaming that they were in any danger from their prisoners. There were twelve of these Indians, and they had no fear of two women and a boy. But Mrs. Dustin told her companions what she wanted them to do, and while the savages lay asleep the three prisoners took possession of their tomahawks and began killing them. They worked so quickly that ten of the Indians were killed. The other two ran for their lives into the forest. The brave woman took their canoe and floated down the river till she got safely to her home again. There is a statue of Mrs. Dustin now in Haverhill, and a monument on the Merrimac River, at the point where the Indians were slain.

There were many more horrible events in these wars. Some large villages, such as Schenectady in New York, and Deerfield in Massachusetts, were taken and burned, and the people murdered or carried off prisoners. It was a terribly cold winter, yet many of the people of Deerfield were made to walk through the woods to Canada with very

little clothing and scarcely anything to eat. There they were sold to the French as slaves.

The pioneers of America led a life of great danger and terror, very different from anything that is known here to-day. The men worked in the fields with their rifles by their sides, and each house was built like a strong fort, for no one knew at what moment the savages might burst with a yell from the woods and fall on them with musket and tomahawk. These were times such as can never come again in this peaceful country.

IV.—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE PURITANS.

To tell what laws a people made, what wars they fought, and what things they did is not to tell their whole story. To tell how they lived, what their houses and churches were like, what work they did, and how they enjoyed themselves is quite as important and as interesting. So it is our purpose now to say something about the manners and customs of the people of New England.

Puritan Houses.—In the early period of the country there were none of the great and beautiful buildings we see to-day. Most of the houses were log huts, only one story high, with very steep roofs which were covered with thatch. But there were some few houses made of wood and brick and some of stone, two stories high. As time went on the houses became larger, but the largest of them would seem small to us.

In these houses were large fireplaces, built of stone, in some of which logs four feet long could be burned. The chimneys were made of boards, or of sticks smeared with clay. There was very little glass for the windows, and oiled paper was used instead. When glass was used it was

made in small and thick diamond-shaped panes, which were set in frames of lead. Furniture was not plentiful, and was very rude in shape and finish, with none of the beauty and art of the furniture of our modern houses. There were few clocks, and most people had to tell the time from the sun. For this purpose the houses were built so as to face exactly south. In this way the people knew when the sun shone squarely into the rooms that it was noon and time for dinner.

Dress.—The Puritans dressed quite plainly, and very differently from what we do now. The men wore knee-breeches and short cloaks, with ruffs about their necks, and steeple-crowned hats; they had rich belts, gold and silver buttons, and high boots rolled over at top for great occasions. The women wore dresses of plain homespun during the week, and silk hoods, lace neckerchiefs, and other finery on Sunday.

But the law required that everybody should dress to suit his or her station in life. Workingmen wore breeches of leather or coarse goods, and red or green baize jackets, with somewhat finer clothes for Sunday; while the gentleman wore his robe of silk or velvet, with lace ruffles at his wrists and gold lace on his cloak. A gold-headed cane and a gold or silver snuff-box were thought necessary to a gentleman. But whoever wore fine clothes could be punished unless he could prove that he was rich enough to afford them.

Titles.—The titles of Mr. and Mrs. were not so common as they are to day. They were used only to clergymen and magistrates, and to people of very high position. Everybody else, except servants, was called Good-man, or Good-wife. Much respect was shown to persons of education. As the colonies grew richer great display was made by wealthy people. Fine houses were built, elegant furniture

and dress were imported, and there was much show and pride.

Food.—Food was by no means of as great a variety as we now have. There was no way to bring fruits from other parts of the world, or to preserve vegetables and meats for the winter, as is now done so largely. Corn meal and milk, or pork and beans, were common food, while bread was generally made of rye and Indian meal. Tea and coffee were not used, but there was much beer and cider drunk. Amusements were very simple. No one was allowed to dance, or to play cards, and there was not much music, while such a thing as a theatre was unknown. The Puritans were simple and strict in all their habits.

Laws and Penalties.—The laws were very severe. There were whipping-posts, where persons might be whipped in public for doing many things which are now not considered crimes. There were also stocks or wooden frames which could be locked around the neck or the feet, in which offenders were fastened and left to the scorn of the public. A woman who was a common scold might be punished by being ducked in a stream or pond, or by having a split stick fastened on her tongue or a gag in her mouth. In some cases the offender was made to stand on a stool in the church with the name of his crime written on a paper which was pinned on his breast.

Town Meetings.—The people, as we have before said, made their own laws. To do this they met in town meeting and talked over public affairs. If a vote had to be taken, corn and beans were used to vote with. A grain of corn meant a vote in favor of the measure; a bean was a vote against it. The town meetings were intended only to discuss local affairs; those of the whole colony were settled by the governor and assembly.

Church-Going.—In religious matters the Puritans were very strict. Everybody was expected to attend church, and those who failed to do so were punished. On Sunday morning the sound of a drum, or perhaps the blowing of a horn or ringing of a bell, would call the people to worship. The meeting-house was like a small fort, as it had a fence of strong stakes driven into the ground around it. Often a



PURITANS GOING TO CHURCH.

cannon or two would be placed near the church, or perhaps on its roof, while the men walked to church with their guns over their shoulders, and kept them within easy reach during the service.

It was fear of the Indians that made them so cautious. No one knew at what moment the dreadful war-whoop

might sound, and a troop of blood-thirsty savages rush into the town. If so, the meeting-house could be turned at once into a fort, and the men fight there for the lives of themselves and their families.

Within the Church.—The worshippers did not sit together as now, but the old people occupied one part of the church, the young men another, and the young women another. The boys sat on the steps of the pulpit and in the gallery. No one was allowed to go to sleep in those old Puritan churches. The constable was always on hand to keep them awake. He carried a staff with the foot of a hare on one end and a hare's tail on the other. If a woman went to sleep, the hare's tail was brushed gently over her face; but if a boy was caught nodding, the hare's foot came down on his pate with a sharp rap. Yet it must have been hard to keep awake, for the sermons were sometimes three or four hours long, and no doubt often very dry and tiresome.

Industries.—The people of New England lived on what they could raise from the soil. But there were some things manufactured, such as hats, paper, shoes, furniture, and farming tools. Most people dressed in homespun goods, and the spinning-wheel was kept busy in the houses. Money was scarce, and for a while bullets were used for farthings. They also used the wampum of the Indians and beaver skins and corn for money; but they began to make silver coins in 1652.

Many vessels were built. The first of these built in Massachusetts was called *The Blessing of the Bay*. In time the New England people had a large trade along the coast, and sent vessels for whales into the icy seas of the north.

Military Customs.—Every man and boy past the age of sixteen had to act as a soldier, and they were obliged to

meet together and go through military exercises at certain periods. The danger from the Indians was so great that this was necessary, and in the frontier settlements no farmer went into his field, or travelled along the road, without his musket. The houses were built like forts.

Some of the soldiers carried long pikes. Others carried guns called matchlocks. These guns were fired with a slow-match, or a piece of substance that burns very slowly. It was long afterwards when they began to use a piece of flint and steel to make a spark and set fire to the powder in the gun, and still later before the gun-caps which are now used were invented. Each soldier carried a rest, or iron fork, which he stuck into the ground to rest the end of his heavy musket on while he took aim. Swords also were used, and some of the soldiers wore iron helmets and breast-plates. Others wore coats quilted with cotton wool, through which an Indian arrow could not pass. Such were the soldiers of old Puritan days.

The usual mode of travel was on foot or horseback, but many went in vessels along the coast. That is the way Benjamin Franklin came from Boston to New York, as he tells us in his own story of his life. From New York to Philadelphia he came part of the way by land and part by boat on the Delaware River, and found it a long and difficult journey. Now one may make the same journey in two hours in a palace car.

V.—NEW YORK.

The Purposes of the Colonists.—The people who came to America did so for various purposes. The Spanish came in search of gold and silver. The French of Canada wished to trade with the Indians. The English of Virginia at first

sought for gold, and soon after began to cultivate tobacco and send it to England. The Puritans were the first who began to till the soil as a business, and who had no other objects in view. They were the first, also, who made the New World truly their home, and took care of themselves without any help from Europe.

The Dutch.—Other people had come to America to trade with the Indians. These were from Holland. After Henry Hudson got back to Europe and told of the great river he had sailed up in the Half Moon, the Dutch claimed all the territory he had visited, and called it “New Netherlands.” A Dutch sailor named Adrian Block came there in 1614, and loaded his ship with bear skins. But when he was just ready to set sail for home his ship, which was called the Tiger, was found to be on fire. It could not be saved, so the sailors had to hurry ashore and leave their vessel to the flames.

They built themselves log huts, and spent the winter on Manhattan Island, where the great city of New York now stands. They called the place New Amsterdam. In the spring they built a vessel called the Onrust, or Unrest, and sailed back to Holland.

The Land Purchased.—After this the Dutch kept on coming, and they formed trading posts at different places along the Hudson River. They were the first settlers who acted as if they believed that the Indians had a right to the lands they lived on, and who were willing to pay for them. But they did not pay a very high price. They bought the whole of Manhattan Island for goods worth about twenty-four dollars. Other tracts of land were bought, and they kept up a thriving trade with the Indians for the skins of bears, beavers, and other animals, which the Indians had shot or caught in their traps.

The Claim to Connecticut.—Some Dutch ships also went up the Connecticut River. They built a fort near its mouth, and said that they owned the whole coast as far north as Cape Cod. They were not there long before an English vessel came sailing down from Plymouth. The Dutch told them that they would fire on them from the fort if they tried to go up the river; but the Plymouth men were not easily frightened, and they sailed past the fort in spite of its guns, and built a trading house at a place they called Windsor. This was in 1633. Other English settlers came to the Connecticut River by land from Massachusetts Bay, and some came over from England and settled at a place which they called New Haven. The Dutch talked of driving them out, but the English were too strong, so the Dutch soon had to leave Connecticut, and it became an English colony.

The Swedes.—Another Dutch vessel, under Captain Mey, sailed into Delaware Bay and River. He took a look at the fine country on both sides, and declared that all this land belonged to Holland. A fort was built on the Delaware River, but it was soon allowed to go to ruin, and the Dutch did not act as if they wanted the country.

About twenty years afterwards a colony came from Sweden, led by Peter Minuit, a former Dutch governor of New York, now in the service of Sweden, and settled on the banks of Delaware Bay and River. Now the Dutch suddenly found out that they wanted the country very badly. They said that the Swedes had settled on their lands, and sent ships and soldiers who attacked them and took their forts from them. The Swedes were not driven away, but they had to accept the Dutch as their masters.

The Duke of York.—The Dutch had some troubles with the Indians, but no very serious ones, and they soon formed many settlements along the Hudson River. Yet the people

were not satisfied, for some of their governors acted like tyrants, and they thought they ought to have the right to govern themselves like the people of New England. It was not long before there was a change in their government. The English said that the country was theirs, and that the Dutch had no right to it. In 1664 the Duke of York sent three armed ships over from England, and the Dutch governor was ordered to give up the country to them. He wanted to fight, but the people would not help him. They did not like the way he had treated them, and thought they would be better off under the English. So the island was given up to the English, and the name of the town changed to New York. This was the beginning of the great city of that name.

Leisler's Revolt.—There is not much more to tell about the colony of New York. The people did not find the English rule any easier than the Dutch. The governors sent out by the Duke of York were very severe. The people at last rose against one of these governors and drove him away, and chose a merchant named Jacob Leisler to take his place. But a new governor was sent over from England, who arrested Leisler for treason. The governor, who was named Sloughter, did not want to do anything more to Leisler, who had not been much to blame; but he had the fault of drinking, and some of Leisler's enemies got him to sign the death-warrant while he was drunk. They took care to hang Leisler before the governor got sober again. There was never any stronger proof than this of the folly and crime of intemperance.

Other governors came afterwards who were no better than Sloughter. One of them was said to be a partner of the pirates, of whom there were many on the coast. A vessel was sent against them, commanded by Captain Kidd; but

he ran away with the vessel and turned pirate himself. He was afterwards taken and hanged.

The Negro Plot.—At this period there were many negro slaves in New York. In time one-fifth of all the inhabitants were slaves. The people grew afraid of them, and passed severe laws to keep them in subjection. At length, in 1741, the story was started that the negroes had formed a plot to murder their masters. This caused great fear among the New Yorkers, and many of the negroes were arrested. Some of these were hung, others were burned at the stake, and others transported. Some white men were hung also.

It is very doubtful if there was any real plot. The people were so frightened that they hardly knew what they were doing, and there is no doubt that many innocent persons were put to death. Fear makes men do many cruel and unjust things.

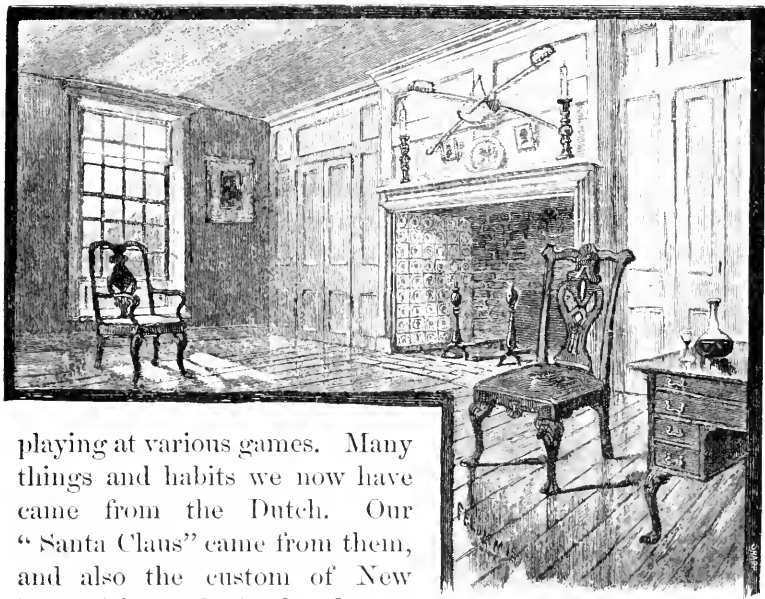
VI.—LIFE IN NEW YORK.

Dutch Houses.—The Dutch settlers of New York had modes of life very different from those of New England and the South. They built houses like those of Holland. These were of wood, or of small black and yellow bricks, and had their gable ends facing the street. There were weather-cocks on the roofs, and the houses had many doors and windows, with a great brass knocker on the front door. They were kept very clean, as houses are in Holland. The women spent much time in sweeping and scrubbing. They had no carpets, but they covered the floors with white sand, which was made into lines and patterns with the broom.

They had great open fireplaces, with tiles of different colors and figures. The furniture was plain and solid, and there was much old silver and china in the cupboards. Every

house had its spinning-wheels and a great chest full of linen which the women had woven.

Modes of Life.—The Dutch did not work very hard. They took life easy, and spent much of their time sitting on their porches with long pipes in their mouths. They liked good eating and drinking, and enjoyed telling stories and



DUTCH INTERIOR.

playing at various games. Many things and habits we now have came from the Dutch. Our "Santa Claus" came from them, and also the custom of New Year visits, and of colored eggs at Easter. The Dutch cooks of New Amsterdam were the first to make doughnuts and crullers in this country.

The people were not very fond of church-going, but they had great respect for their ministers, or "dommies," as they called them. When money was scarce they paid the dominies in beaver skins or wampum.

The Dutch Dress.—The Hollanders had their own ideas about dress. The men wore several pairs of knee-breeches, one over the other, which gave them a very baggy look. They wore large buckles at the knees and on the shoes, while their coats had great buttons of brass or silver. The women wore a great many short and bright-colored petticoats, with stockings of various colors and high-heeled shoes. On their heads they wore white muslin caps.

Industries.—There were people of several different nations in New York, but Dutch was the ordinary language, even long after the country had been taken by the English. Most of the people were engaged in trading with the Indians for furs, which they sent to Europe, along with timber, tar, tobacco, and other things. They built their own vessels, and gave them such queer names as King Solomon and The Angel Gabriel.

The Patroons.—The country was settled in a way unlike that of any other colony. Rich persons came from Holland, where they had bought the right to take up in America a tract of land running sixteen miles along a stream and as far back into the country as they pleased. They were told that they must pay the Indians for the land, and bring out a colony of fifty persons within four years.

These great land-owners were called “Patroons.” They owned all the best lands, and the farmers were only tenants. Thus New York was very different from New England, which was divided into small farms owned by the farmers. The patroon system was not changed by the English, and many of these great estates continued until recent times. The rents were low, but about 1844 many of the tenants refused to pay rent any longer. After some trouble most of the farmers bought their lands, and the great estates of the patroons were broken up.

VII.—MARYLAND.

Lord Baltimore.—The Catholics of England were treated as badly as the Puritans, and when they saw how well the Puritans got along in America, they thought that if they should cross the ocean they might be able to live like them in peace and comfort. So a Catholic nobleman, named Lord Baltimore, got King Charles I. to give him a charter for a colony. The land he chose was on Chesapeake Bay, where a settlement was made in 1634 at a place called St. Mary's. The country was named Maryland, after the wife of the king, Charles I., whose name was Henrietta Maria.

The charter which the king gave to Lord Baltimore was a very liberal one. He was to govern the country in his own way, without any interference from England, and the king promised not to tax the colony if the governor would send him one-fifth of any gold or silver he might find and two Indian arrows every year as a sort of tribute.

Religious Liberty.—Lord Baltimore was a wise and just man, and he declared that no one should suffer in his colony on account of religion. Most of the first settlers were Roman Catholics, but he said that all Christian people should have the same rights as the Catholics in Maryland. So for a time there were no religious disputes in that colony, though it was not long before other troubles began.

Clayborne's Rebellion.—Many persons came from Virginia and settled in Maryland, and these did not get along well with the Catholics. Some of them had been there before Lord Baltimore, and they claimed to own a part of the country. Disputes began, and before many years there was war in the colony. A man named Clayborne was at the head of the Virginians, and after some fighting he drove out the governor and took possession of the country. But

the fighting began once more, and in the end he was defeated and had to flee for his life. So Lord Baltimore got possession of his colony again.

Religious Troubles.—But other Protestants kept coming into the country, who were not willing to live in peace with the Catholics, even under their fair laws. Quarrels arose, and when the Protestants became strong enough they passed a law that no Catholic should have a vote. In this way religious freedom came to an end in Maryland.

In 1691 the King of England took the province away from Lord Baltimore and placed it under a royal governor. He declared that the Church of England should be the church of the colony, and the people were no longer allowed to worship in their own way. For twenty years this state of affairs continued. Then the king gave the colony back again to a descendant of Lord Baltimore, who was a Protestant. After that time no one was persecuted on account of his religion.

Most of the people of Maryland lived on plantations and raised tobacco as they did in Virginia. They paid for everything they wanted with this plant, which served them instead of money. Lord Baltimore had bought the land from the Indians, and the people had very little trouble with them. After the religious disputes were settled, Maryland became a happy and prosperous colony, and affairs went on well there for many years.

VIII.—PENNSYLVANIA.

Religious Persecution.—We have seen that it was religious persecution that made many of the people of Europe come to America. It was this that brought the French Protestants to Florida, the Puritans to New England, and the Catholics to Maryland. The same cause sent another colony over the

ocean. In those days each of the great nations of Europe had one religion which it said was the only true one, and they declared that any person who had a different belief was a bad man, and should be punished.

The Quakers.—There were many of these “heretics,” as they called them, in England. One sect of them had the name of Quakers. They did not believe in war, nor in fine clothes, nor that one man is better than another. They would not take off their hats before a king. They had no fine churches and no paid ministers, and their ideas were so different from those of the Church of England that the government tried to make them change their belief.

Many of them were thrown into prison, and they were treated so cruelly in other ways that some of them came across the ocean to Massachusetts. They thought that they might worship God in their own way among the Puritans, but they soon found out their mistake. We have told already how badly the Puritans treated them.

William Penn.—Among the Quakers was one rich and educated man, named William Penn. His father had been an admiral in the English navy, and when he died Charles II. owed him a large sum of money. William Penn had been in prison for being a Quaker, and he thought that he would like to make a home for himself and his friends where they could live in peace. So he asked King Charles to give him some land in America for the money he owed him.

The king was glad to do this, for he had more land than money. He told Penn that he might have the land on the west of the Delaware River. This had belonged first to the Indians, then to the Swedes, and afterwards to the Dutch, but when the English took New Amsterdam from the Dutch they took this also. It was covered with forests, and Penn

wished to call it Sylvania, from the Latin word Sylva, which means forest. But the king said it should be called Pennsylvania, or Penn's forest-land.



WILLIAM PENN.

Philadelphia. — William Penn came to America in the year 1682, in the ship *Welcome*. There were Swedes and Dutch in his new province before him, as we know, and also some English, whom he had sent out the year before. Several of the Swedes lived where the great city of Philadelphia now stands; but Penn

bought the ground from them, and laid out a city, which he called Philadelphia, or “brotherly love.”

He soon asked the Indians to meet him and have a friendly talk. Many of the chiefs came, and they met together under a great elm-tree, on the banks of the Delaware. The white men had no guns, and they gave presents to the Indians and promised to buy the land from them, instead of cheating and shooting them as had been done elsewhere. So the Indians were glad to see them, and said that they would live “in love with the children of William Penn while the sun and moon shall shine.”



PENN TREATY MONUMENT.

This promise was kept for many years. The Quakers were a peaceful and just people, who never did any harm to the savages, and the Indians always looked on them as their friends. All the troubles with the red men in Pennsylvania came from other people.

The Laws.—William Penn stayed only two years in America, and then went back to England, where he remained for many years. Instead of trying to govern the people, he called them together and let them make their own laws, and the colony at once became free and happy. Every man who paid a tax had a right to vote, no matter what religious belief he had, and the people continued to choose their own officers and make their own laws. Nearly the only power which William Penn kept was that of appointing the governor.

The Population.—People came over very fast to the Quaker settlement. Some of those who came first lived in holes dug in the river bank; but houses were soon built, and in two years Philadelphia had three hundred houses and twenty-five hundred inhabitants. Penn did not come back until 1699, at which time there were seven hundred houses. The city was very prosperous, but Penn did not get much money from his colony. The people forgot how much they owed to him, and let him die poor after all he had done to make them rich and happy.

Delaware.—And now we must say something about the provinces of Delaware and New Jersey. One of the early governors of Virginia, named Lord de la Ware, had made a voyage along the coast, and entered a beautiful river, which was called Delaware after his name. Then the Swedes and the Dutch came, and afterwards the English, and the country which is now called Delaware was for a time part of Pennsylvania. In 1703 it was made a separate colony, under its present name.

New Jersey.—The Dutch were the first to settle in New Jersey. But when the Duke of York robbed the Dutch of their settlements, he gave this province to two English noblemen, who named it after the island of Jersey, in the English Channel.

Among the people who came there were some Quakers, and William Penn soon bought part of the land and invited others to come. Afterwards the rest of the province was bought by the Quakers, and it was thrown open to the persecuted people of all religions.

But in 1702 a royal governor was appointed who ruled over New York and New Jersey. It was not till 1738 that New Jersey got a governor of its own. But the lands settled by the Quakers long continued among the most peaceful, freest, and happiest of all the settlements in America.

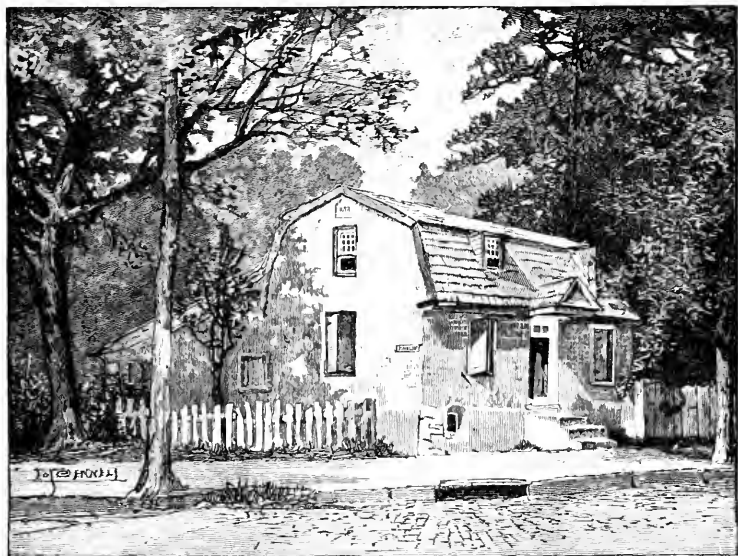
IX.—LIFE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

The People of Pennsylvania.—Pennsylvania was settled by people of different nations, and several languages were spoken. Among these settlers were English and Swedes, Dutch and Germans, Scotch and Irish. There were no important towns besides Philadelphia, but that was the greatest city in America till after the Revolution.

Philadelphia.—William Penn laid out his city with streets crossing each other at right angles, like those of ancient Babylon. It had many handsome buildings, the streets were lined with trees, and there were gardens and orchards about the houses, so that it was a “fair greene country town,” as Penn wished it to be. The sidewalks were paved with flag-stones, which at that time could be found in few cities. In 1740 the city had about twelve thousand inhabitants, and was a very thriving place.

Modes of Life.—Philadelphia was noted for the abundance of its fruit. A German traveller said, in 1748, that the peaches were so plentiful that the people fed their pigs on them. The people in Europe, he said, cared more for their turnips than the people in Philadelphia did for their finest fruits.

The shops of the city were only the ordinary houses, with



OLDEST HOUSE IN GERMANTOWN.

something hung over the door to show what was for sale inside. Now you would see a basket, now a beehive, or perhaps a wooden anchor, or something else to serve as a sign. The people were very quiet and sober, and did not care much for amusements. There was not much travelling about the country, for the roads were very bad.

Dealings with the Indians.—While William Penn lived his colony had no trouble with the Indians. It is said that no drop of Quaker blood was ever shed by an Indian. This is not quite true, yet they were long the best of friends. But some of William Penn's successors treated the Indians badly, and made them very angry. The Indians had sold some men as much land as a man could walk over in a day and a half. They supposed that this land would be walked over in the usual way; but instead of that a smooth walk was laid out and some fast walkers trained, who went over a very long distance in the day and a half. The Indians said that this was not fair. But the white men brought Indians from New York who were enemies of the tribe of the Delawares, and who drove them from their lands. This was not the way that William Penn would have acted, and the Indians never again felt as they had done towards the white men.

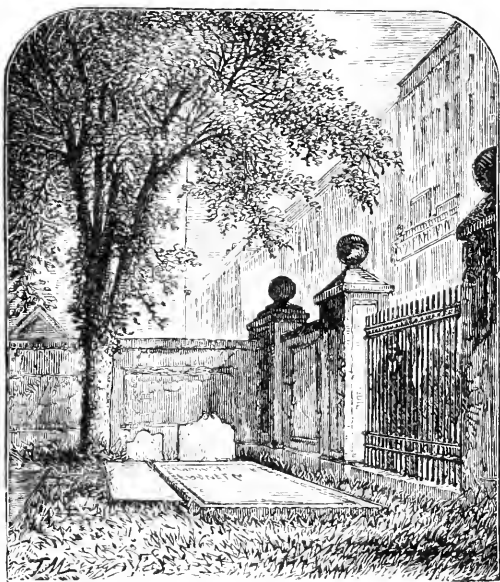
Benjamin Franklin.—In 1723 there came to Philadelphia a very remarkable man. This was the celebrated Benjamin



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Franklin, who was born in Boston, but came to Philadelphia while he was young. His brother had printed a newspaper in Boston, and Franklin soon started one in Philadelphia, which became one of the best in the country. He did many other things. He kept a stationer's shop; he bound books; he made ink; he sold rags, soap, and coffee. He was not ashamed to do anything honest, and would wheel the papers he sold along the streets in a wheelbarrow, which many poorer and less worthy men were too proud to do. He was probably the wisest man of the period

in which he lived. While he was working he was always studying, and it was he who proved that lightning is the same thing as electricity. He brought the lightning down from the clouds along the string of a kite, and got an electric shock from it. Franklin did much for the progress of Philadelphia. He started a university, a hospital, a



FRANKLIN'S GRAVE.

library, and other public institutions. He did as much for the good of the whole country. No man did more to help America to become free from England, and he was one of those who prepared the Constitution of the United States, that great document which first made a nation of this country. Franklin was one of the noblest men the world has ever known, and America will never cease to be proud of him.

X.—THE CAROLINAS.

The Proprietors.—We have seen how freely King Charles II. gave away land in America. He gave New York to one person and Pennsylvania to another, while a large region, known as the Carolinas, was given by him to eight persons, most of whom were noblemen of his court, and none of whom had ever seen America.

Settlers had come to Carolina before this, some from Virginia, and others from New England and elsewhere. There were many there in 1663 when these noblemen became the owners of the land. These eight persons decided to have a different kind of government from that of the other colonies.

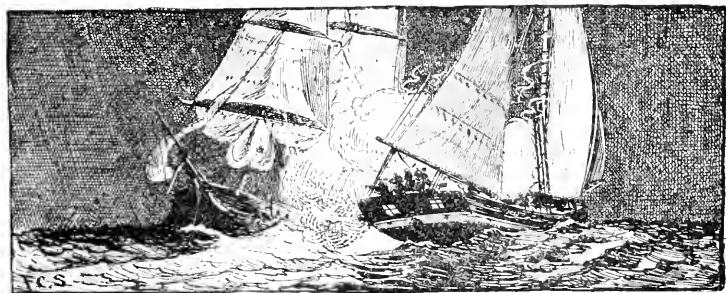
They did not believe in freedom, and thought that the people were not fit to take care of themselves, as they were trying to do in New England. So they concluded to have a strong government, in which the people would have nothing to do but to obey the laws that were made for them.

The Grand Model Government.—The proprietors went to a celebrated philosopher, named John Locke, and asked him to draw up a plan of government for them. He did so, and formed a plan which was called the “Grand Model.” There were to be earls and barons in Carolina as there are in Europe. These were to own all the land, and to have all the power, and the people were to be little better than slaves.

This plan might have done very well for the Spanish or French colonies, but it would not work with the English. The people in Carolina had come from places where the settlers owned the land and made the laws. They did not understand the Grand Model, and paid no attention to it, but went on in their own way, took what land they wanted, and did not trouble themselves about the plans of the proprietors.

The earls and barons stayed at home and the proprietors stayed with them, while the people decided for themselves what was best to do, and did it. Settlers came from different parts of Europe, among them some French Protestants, who had the same belief as those who had come over a hundred years before under Jean Ribault. The colony soon became prosperous.

The Pirates.—There were pirates along the coast who gave trouble for many years. They would conceal their vessels in the bays and rivers of the coast, and suddenly



A MERCHANTMAN ATTACKED BY A PIRATE.

sail out and attack passing ships. It is said that some of the settlers helped them. They sunk many vessels and murdered many people before they were driven away or captured by armed ships.

Industries.—The rice plant was brought into the colony by a vessel from Madagascar. It was planted and became a very valuable crop in the southern part of Carolina. In the northern part the people made tar and turpentine out of the pine-trees, and hunted for bear and beaver skins.

Later on there were wars with the Spaniards and the Indians. The people of Carolina sent some war vessels against St. Augustine, in Florida. In return the Spaniards

stirred up the Indians to make war on the settlements. But in the end the Tuscarora Indians, with whom they had the most trouble, were driven out of the colony and forced to go to New York, where they joined the Iroquois, or Five Nations.

Division of the Colony.—The proprietors tried to govern the people of the Carolinas, but the people wanted to govern themselves, so they drove the governor sent to them out of the colony, and put the secretary in prison. In the end the proprietors got tired of quarrelling with the people and asked the king to buy the province from them.

He did so, and divided the province into two parts, which were called North and South Carolina. This was in 1729. The people chose their own law-makers, but they did not like the governors sent them by the king any more than they had done their old ones. But this did not keep people from coming, and the country in time grew rich and prosperous.

XI.—LIFE IN VIRGINIA AND CAROLINA.

The Settlers of Virginia.—The people who settled Virginia were of a very different class from those of the Northern colonies. They did not come to the New World either to work, or to worship God; nor had they any thought of growing rich by trading with the Indians. Most of them were English gentlemen, with more pride than money, who did not know how to work, and who hoped to get rich by finding mines of gold and silver, or in some other easy way. Afterwards criminals were sent across the ocean and sold for a certain number of years to the colonists. These worked for the planters, though it is not likely that they were of much use. In time the planters became the rich men of Virginia and these servants the poor men.

Captain Smith, as we have already said, made everybody work, but he did not stay very long. At first, as he says, all the shelter they had was an awning made from an old sail, nailed to trees. Then they built some rough log houses, whose seats and tables were made of planks cut out with an axe. This was very different from the way people afterwards lived in Virginia.

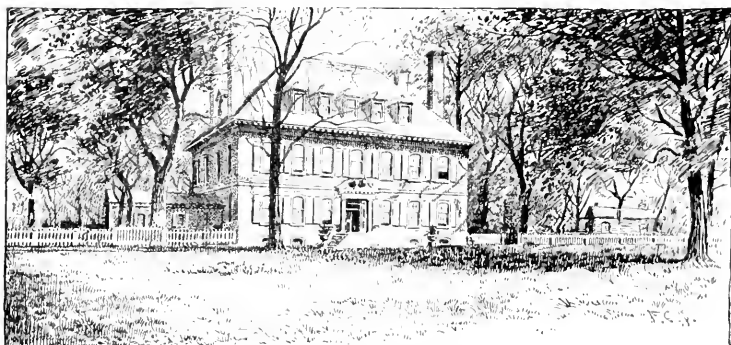
When slaves were brought over and the people began to raise tobacco they soon grew more comfortable. Their tobacco was sent to England, and goods were sent to them in return. For a long time tobacco was used for money. One pound of tobacco was worth from two to twelve cents of our money, which at that time could buy five or six times as much as that amount of money can now.

Modes of Life.—The settlers soon began to build vessels for themselves, and carried on a good trade with England. They lived in a different way from the people of the North. In travelling you would find few towns or villages, but the land was divided up into large plantations, where tobacco was the principal crop. Each house stood far from any others, and there were a great many negro servants. The slaves who worked in the fields lived in a little village of their own. Nearly everything that was used on the plantations was made by the slaves, who were taught different trades. There were mills to grind corn and wheat, and large sheds to cure tobacco. This tobacco was packed in great hogsheads, and sent to the coast to be loaded on vessels and shipped to England. They had a curious way of sending it to the coast. An axle was run through the hogshead of tobacco, and shafts fixed to it. Then horses or oxen would drag it over the roads, the hogshead rolling along like a great wheel.

The Planters.—As time went on there came to be great

differences in riches. There were more very rich men and more very poor ones than in the North. The great planters lived like lords. They kept packs of hunting dogs and many racing horses, and rode to church or town in fine coaches drawn by six horses, and attended by riders on horseback.

Their houses were built of wood, or of brick brought from England. These houses were often large and grand, with broad stairways and mantels and wainscots of solid mahogany, which was richly carved. Gold and silver ware could be seen in abundance on the sideboards, and the fur-



A MANOR HOUSE IN VIRGINIA.

niture was rich and showy. The planters were very hospitable. Strangers were received with a warm welcome, and everything was done to make their visits pleasant and agreeable.

Government.—The planters spent much of their time attending to political matters. They carried on the government of the colony and became very aristocratic. There were among them men of high education and fine character, and afterwards many of the leading statesmen of America came from Virginia. The governors of the colony

were sent from England, and at first the laws were made in that country. Afterwards the people were allowed to make their own laws.

Punishments.—The early laws were very severe. Every man who stayed away from church was punished. At first the law said that a man who stayed away from church three times must be put to death. Afterwards the punishment for this offence was to be made a slave for a year and a day. There were severe laws against swearing and scolding.



AN EPISCOPAL CHURCH IN VIRGINIA.

Both men and women might be whipped in public, or placed in the stocks. Or they might be made to stand in church with white sheets over them, or with the name of their crime pinned on their breasts. Such laws as these, however, did not last long, and were not often carried out.

Religious Persecution.—The Church of England was the

established church of Virginia, and members of other churches were treated with much severity. The laws forbade Quakers and Catholics to come into the colony. All those who came were punished. This made many go to Maryland and Carolina, where religion was free. And thus the severe laws of Virginia helped to fill up these other colonies.

Education.—In 1671, Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, wrote, “I thank God there are no free schools nor printing-presses here, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years.” Another governor taxed school-masters twenty shillings each. So education did not make much progress, and there was no newspaper in Virginia till 1736. But William and Mary College, of Virginia, was the second in the country, Harvard College, of Massachusetts, being the first.

North Carolina.—The mode of life all through the South was much the same as in Virginia. In many places the land was divided into great plantations, worked by slaves, while the country was not so thickly settled as in the North. In North Carolina there were different modes of life. Here great pine woods lay all along the coast, and the people made tar and turpentine from the trees. Farther back the country was more open, and farms were cultivated, while many persons spent their time in hunting. The settlers lived far apart, and the only roads they had through the woods were paths, with notches cut on the trees to guide travellers. This they called “blazing their way.”

South Carolina.—South Carolina was much more like Virginia. Here great plantations were formed, but rice was raised instead of tobacco. Afterwards indigo was cultivated. The planters of South Carolina grew very rich from rice and indigo. Farther back, near the mountains, the

people were poor, the land was divided into small farms, and there were many hunters.

Education.—There were few schools except in Charleston, but the rich planters sent their sons to England to be educated. The Church of England became the established church of the colony, but there were no severe laws against people of other beliefs, as in Virginia. The difference in the crops and in the climate had much to do with the difference in mode of life of the Southern and Northern colonies.

XII.—GEORGIA.

Tyranny in Europe.—It is interesting to find that nearly all the English colonies in America were formed as places of refuge for the poor and ill-treated people of Europe. In our happy days and our free country it is hard for us to understand the way men lived and acted in Europe a few hundred years ago. People not only could not do as they wished to do, but were not even allowed to think as they wished to think. To-day there are many different ideas about God and heaven and religious matters, but then the governments tried to make everybody think the same way about these matters. This they could not do. People never can be made to think the same way about anything. Then the governments tried to force them to do so by ill treatment, and thousands of men and women came to America to get away from those who oppressed them.

We have told the story of a number of colonies that were formed in this way. There is one more to speak of, the colony of Georgia. This was formed by an Englishman named Oglethorpe, one of those warm-hearted men who spend their lives in trying to do good to their fellow-men.

The English Prisons.—In those days persons in England who failed in business, and could not pay their debts, were

put in prison, where they were often kept for many years. The prisons of old times were filthy dens, where the prisoners were crowded together and treated with great cruelty, and many of them died of want and disease. It was these poor debtors whom Oglethorpe wished to help; but he said that all who were poor and unfortunate, and all who were ill treated on account of their religion, might have a home in his colony.

The Settlement of Georgia.—The king, George II., gave him a charter to the land that lay between Carolina and Florida, which he called Georgia after the king's name. He brought over a number of the poor debtors, whom the king set free at his desire. They made a settlement where the city of Savannah now stands. For a whole year Oglethorpe lived in a tent, set up under four pine-trees. The king had given him the land; but, like William Penn and some others, he thought that the Indians had the best right to it, so he paid them for it. After that they were always friendly to him.



OGLETHORPE.

People came to Georgia from all parts of Europe. These were the poor of Europe, who hoped to live in comfort in America. Among them were many Moravians from Austria,—people who had been persecuted on account of their religion. Oglethorpe would not let any slaves be brought into Georgia. He also would not let any person bring rum into the colony. He looked on slavery and intemperance as two great evils.

The Colony Prospers.—Houses were built, and a fort was erected to defend the colonists, while the land was divided up into farms and given to the settlers. Savannah soon

became a town of considerable size and importance. The people were on good terms with the Indians, and all went well with them. No colony in America ever began with better prospects. But they were soon to have their share of trouble.

The Claims of Spain.—The country which the King of England had given to Oglethorpe was part of that which Spain claimed under the name of Florida. It was the same region which Narvaez and De Soto had travelled over two hundred years before. So if discovery gave any rights it belonged to Spain rather than to England. But the Spanish had not settled it, and the English had, and they were not likely to give it up to please Spain. Those who had possession did not trouble themselves much about an old claim on paper.

War with Florida.—The Spaniards grew angry on finding the English coming into a country which they said was theirs. After some years war broke out between England and Spain, and then the people of the colonies began the cruel work of trying to kill one another. Oglethorpe got together an army of one thousand white men and many Indians, and marched into Florida to take the Spanish city of St. Augustine. But he did not succeed and had to march back again, with his men very much the worse for their journey. This was in 1740.

Two years afterwards the Spaniards tried to take Georgia from the English. They sailed northward with three thousand men and a great many vessels, and landed on St. Simon's Island. Oglethorpe met them with a much smaller force, but after some fighting the Spanish were taken with a panic of terror and ran for their ships. They sailed away in all haste and the colony was saved. Many years passed before Georgia had any more troubles from war.

After the War.—Some time after this Oglethorpe went back to England. The people were not satisfied with the laws, some of which were severe and vexatious, and they made so many complaints that in time the charter was given back to the king, and Georgia became a royal province. Oglethorpe never returned to America. He lived to be a very old man, and was one of the best men who had anything to do with the settlement of America.

The Laws.—One of the laws of which the people complained stated that no man should own a farm beyond a fixed size. Another stated that no woman should have land left to her by will. Every man who held land was bound to serve as a soldier when called upon, and this was why women were not allowed to own it. Everybody was to have the rights of an Englishman, and all religions were free except the Roman Catholic.

Industries of the Colony.—The people soon said that they could not work their lands in so warm a climate without slaves, so after seven years the planters were allowed to have them. And rum, which Oglethorpe had forbidden, soon made its way into the colony. The people cleared the forests and tilled the land with the help of their slaves, and after a while much silk was made in the colony. Silk-worms had been sent from England, with people who understood silk making, and this business was kept up until the time of the Revolution. General Oglethorpe took some of the first silk that was produced to England, and a silk dress was made of it for the queen.

Visitors.—Among the people of Georgia was a settlement of the Highlanders of Scotland, and whenever Oglethorpe visited them he wore the Highland dress, which gave them great pleasure. Soon after Georgia was settled some celebrated English preachers came there. These were John and

Charles Wesley, the men who started the Methodist doctrine in England. George Whitefield, another celebrated Methodist preacher, also came over. From the money which he received for his preaching he founded an "Orphan House" in Savannah.

Dealings with the Indians.—As we have said, Oglethorpe, like William Penn in Pennsylvania, Lord Baltimore in Maryland, and the Dutch in New York, paid the Indians



OGLETHORPE AND THE CHIEFS.

for their land. In consequence these colonies had much less trouble with the Indians than those which took the land without paying for it.

The Indians of Georgia were called Creeks, because there were so many creeks, or small streams, in their country. They formed a league of several tribes, and were more civilized than the Indians of the North.

Some of the chiefs gave Oglethorpe a buffalo skin, on the inside of which was a painting of the head and feathers of an eagle. They said to him, "The feathers of the eagle are soft, which signifies love; the skin is warm, and is the emblem of protection; therefore love and protect our little families."

And they lived up to this saying. All the trouble the Georgia people had with the Indians was with those of Florida, whom the Spanish stirred up against them.

XIII.—CONDITION OF THE COLONIES.

The English Colonies.—We have now told the story of the forming of the English colonies from New Hampshire to Georgia. Maine at that time was part of Massachusetts, and New Hampshire was the most northerly colony. The whole coast land between the French province of Canada and the Spanish province of Florida was occupied by English settlements.

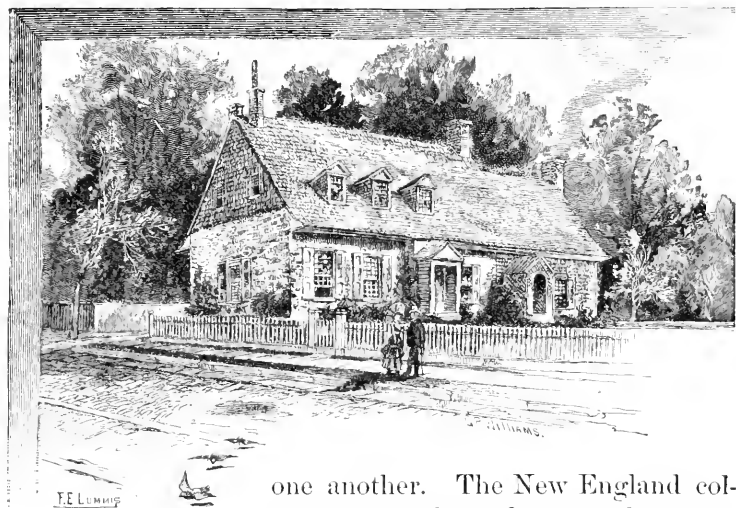
Each of the English colonies claimed the country from the settlements on the coast all the way to the Pacific Ocean. But the French had a claim to the back country also, and it took some hard fighting later on to decide who should own it.

Growth of the Colonies.—The colonies grew very rapidly. In less than one hundred and fifty years after the first settlement was made there were a million and a quarter people in the country. These were divided nearly equally between the New England, the Middle, and the Southern colonies. The South had more than the others, but not more white people.

Industries.—The people of the colonies were very industrious. They raised tobacco, rice, indigo, grain, and other crops, much of which was sent to England to pay for manu-

factured goods. Rice served for money in South Carolina, as tobacco did in Virginia. The colonies in time grew so rich that they were able to help the King of England, in his wars, with money and ships. Georgia was the poorest colony, and the only one to which the king ever sent any money to help it.

The Colonies isolated.—At first the colonies on the coast were a long distance apart. Great forests spread between them, and it was not easy for a man to get from one to another except by ships. So they had not much to do with



AN OLD RESIDENCE.

one another. The New England colonies were the only ones that were close together, and whose people could easily get from one to another. Thus each of them had a history of its own as much as if it were a separate country.

Growing together.—But the country between them in time filled up with people, the woods were cut down, and farms were laid out all along the coast and some distance

into the interior. By 1750 the settlements had grown together so that men might travel by land along the whole coast and find white men at short distances apart. America was now becoming one country, instead of a number of separate colonies.

Land Travelling.—But a land journey in America then was not an easy task. It was not till long afterwards that railroads and steamboats came into use. The roads were bad, and many of the streams had no bridges, or very poor ones, so it was not easy or pleasant to travel on horseback or by carriage. There were stage-lines in some places, but the stages moved very slowly. Much of the travel continued to be by vessels along the coast.

Difference in Customs.—The people of New England were settled more closely than those of the South. Their land was broken up into small farms, and more manufactured goods were made. In the South there was more land, and it was divided into large plantations, so that the people lived at a distance apart, and there was less social intercourse than in the North. Negro slaves were kept in the whole country, but there were more of them in the South than in the North, for the great plantations in the South could not be worked without them, while there was much less use for them on the smaller farms of the North. The warm climate of the South also was better suited to them.

Government.—Each of the colonies had a legislature, or law-making body, of its own, but only New England elected its own governors. Elsewhere the governors were appointed by the proprietors or the king, and the people had less to do with public affairs.

Restrictive Laws.—England wanted to keep all the trade of the colonies for itself. The people were forbidden to send their vessels and goods to any other country than Eng-

land, or to let the ships of any other country come into their ports. And the English wanted to manufacture their goods for them also, and to keep the people of America at farming. They forbade them to make iron, paper, hats, leather, and other things.

These laws were not well carried out. The people often disobeyed them. In after years England tried to enforce them, and the people grew angry and rebellious. This was one of the things that led to the Revolution.

PART II.—QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

I. Name the two companies formed to make settlements in America. When did they send out colonies? Where did the Southern colony settle? How did the colonists act? How did Captain John Smith make them work? How did he save his life among the Indians? What did Pocahontas do? What became of Smith? Describe "the starving time." What plant did the colonists begin to raise? When were slaves first brought to America? How did the colonists get wives? Describe the Indian massacre. What caused Bacon's rebellion? What followed it?

II. Why did the Pilgrims leave England? Holland? Why did they decide to go to America? What was the name of their vessel? Where did they land, and when? Why were they called Pilgrims? How did they act? Who was Captain Miles Standish? What did Canonieus, the Indian chief, do? How were the Indians frightened? What new settlement was made? What were these colonists called? What was done with the charter? What kind of government was established? What other colonies were formed? How came Roger Williams to found Rhode Island? How were religious opinions treated there? How did the Quakers act in Massachusetts? How did the Puritans treat them? What is meant by witchcraft? Describe the Salem witchcraft. How many were hanged as witches? What advance was made in government? What did Charles II. do about the charters? What did James II. do? Tell what was done about the Connecticut charter. How did the people get rid of royal governors?

III. How did the English treat the Indians? What did the Pequots do? Describe the attack on the Pequot fort. What effect had this on the Indians? Who was King Philip? What did the Indians do under his influence? Describe the attack on the Narragansetts. When and how was Philip killed?

What were the results of the war? Why did the French stir up the Indians to attack the English? What was the result? Who was Mrs. Dustin? How did she escape from the Indians? What was done at Schenectady and Deerfield? How did the people protect themselves from the Indians?

IV. What were the houses of the Puritans like? How were they arranged and furnished? How was the sun made to tell the time of day? How did the Puritans dress? What titles were used? What did they have for food? What were their ideas about amusements? What punishments did they inflict? How were votes taken at the town meetings? What were their rules about church-going? How were the churches protected? Why was this done? How did the people sit within the church? How did the constable keep them awake? What industries had the Puritans? What did they use for money? What were their vessels used for? Who had to act as soldiers? How were the soldiers armed? What was the mode of travel? How did Benjamin Franklin come to Philadelphia?

V. For what purposes did people come to America? What region did the Dutch claim? How came Adrian Block to spend the winter on Manhattan Island? Where did the Dutch settle? How did they act towards the Indians? What did they trade for? How were they driven out of Connecticut? Who sailed up Delaware Bay? From what other country of Europe did a colony come to Delaware Bay? How did the Dutch act towards the Swedes? What did the Duke of York do? What name did the English give to the Dutch town of New Amsterdam? How was the English rule liked? Describe Leisler's revolt. What proportion of the people of New York were slaves? What story was started about them? How were the slaves treated?

VI. What kind of houses did the Dutch build? In what condition were they kept? How were they furnished? Did the Dutch work hard? What were some of their customs? How did they treat their ministers? How were the men and women dressed? How did they employ themselves? What did they send to Europe? How was the country settled? What were the great land-owners called? Did the farmers own their land? How were the estates of the patroons broken up?

VII. How were the Catholics treated in England? What did Lord Baltimore do? What did he name the land granted him? What was he to give the king? What did he declare about religion? What brought on disputes? Describe Clayborne's rebellion. What did the Protestants do? What happened after the king took control of the colony? Was it given back to Lord Baltimore again? How did the people of Maryland live? What did they use as money?

VIII. What beliefs and customs did the Quakers have? How were they

treated in England? Who was William Penn? How came he to ask the king for land in America? What land did the king give him? What name was given it? What does this name mean? When did William Penn come to America? What people did he find in his province? What city did he lay out? Describe Penn's treaty with the Indians. How did the Quakers and the Indians get on together? What power did Penn give the people? How fast did the city of Philadelphia grow? How was Penn treated by the colonists? After whom was the Delaware River named? When was the colony of Delaware separated from Pennsylvania? Who first settled New Jersey? Who bought the land? When did New Jersey get a governor of its own?

IX. From what nations came the settlers of Pennsylvania? How was Philadelphia laid out? How were the streets paved? How many inhabitants were there in 1740? What is said about fruit? How were the shops arranged? What was the character of the people? How were the Indians treated? What trick was played to rob them of their land? What celebrated man came to Philadelphia in 1723? How did he do business? How did he prove that lightning and electricity are the same? What did he do for Philadelphia? What service did he perform for the whole country?

X. To whom did Charles II. give the province of Carolina? What ideas did the proprietors have about the people? Whom did they ask to draw up a plan of government? What was this plan called? How were the people to be governed? How did the people act? What class of law-breakers was there along the coast? How did they act? Where was the rice plant brought from? In what part of Carolina was it raised? What did the people do in the northern part? Describe the wars with the Spaniards and Indians. What became of the Tuscarora Indians? What troubles took place between the people and the governor? What did the proprietors ask the king to do? How did the king divide the Carolinas?

XI. What class of people came to Virginia? What other kind were sent there? How did they become divided? How did the people live at first? What was used as money? What was it worth? How did the people live afterwards? What work did the slaves do on the plantations? How were the tobacco hogsheads sent to the coast? How did the great planters live in later years? What were their houses like? How were strangers treated? What was the government like? What punishments were inflicted by the early laws? What was the established religion of Virginia? How did the government act towards other religions? For what did a governor of Virginia thank God? Did education make much progress? Which were the first two colleges in America? How was the land divided in the South? What did the people of North Carolina produce? How did they make their

way through the woods? What was South Carolina like? What crops were raised? How was education provided for?

XII. How were the people of Europe treated a few centuries ago? How were debtors treated? For what purpose was the colony of Georgia founded? Who was its founder? How did Oglethorpe live at Savannah? How did he treat the Indians? What classes of people came to Georgia? What did Oglethorpe do about slaves and rum? How did the colony prosper? What claim was made by Spain? What did Oglethorpe do? What success did he have? What did the Spaniards do afterwards? What was the fate of their expedition? What kind of man was Oglethorpe? What were the laws that the people complained of? When were the planters allowed to have slaves? Was rum kept out of the colony? What important industry was started? What was done with some of the first silk? What celebrated English preachers came to Georgia? What church did these belong to? Were the Indians paid for their land? Why were they called Creeks? What did the chiefs give Oglethorpe? Was there any trouble with the Indians?

XIII. How far back from the coast did the English colonies claim the country? What other people claimed the back country? How rapidly did the colonies grow? How was the population divided? What crops were raised? How rich did the colonies grow? Was it easy to get from one colony to another? Why not? Which colonies were close together? What had happened by 1750? Why were land journeys difficult? Why was there more social intercourse in New England than in the South? Where were negro slaves kept? Why were they most useful in the South? How were the governors appointed? What did England do about trade? What were the people forbidden to make? What was the result of these laws?

PART III.

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

I.—THE FRENCH IN AMERICA.

The English Colonies.—We have told the story of how the English came to America and settled along the coast of what is now the United States. The colonies they formed were not very large. They did not go far back from the coast, but their people laid claim to the land across the whole country to the Pacific Ocean.

These claims were made only on paper. Most of the country to the west was still in the hands of the Indians; but part of it was held by other white men, people of another nation, who had settled on it, and were not likely to give it up without a fight.

The French Settlements.—These people were the French. They had forts and settlements along the line of the great lakes and down the Mississippi River as far as the Gulf of Mexico, and they intended to take possession of the country between the lakes and the Ohio River. If this had gone on the English would in time have been confined to their settlements along the coast, and the western country would have belonged to the French. But before we tell the story of what followed we must go back to the early French settlers, and relate what they were doing while the English were forming their colonies.

Enterprise of the French.—The French had been more

active in exploring the country than the English. We have already told of how Champlain made his way far into the country of the Iroquois. He also sailed over some of the great lakes. Later on there were two things that took the French through the country. These were trade and religion. The French began early to trade with the Indians, and they travelled long distances in search of furs, and built trading-houses and forts far away from Quebec. Among them were many priests who belonged to the religious society known as the Jesuits. These priests wished to make Christians of the Indians, and made long journeys for that purpose, though they knew that they might be put to death by the savages.

Marquette's Discovery.—One of these priests was named Marquette. He had spent years among the Indians, and knew their languages, and had often heard them speak of a mighty western river that ran far to the south. He wanted to see this river, and so in the year 1673 he crossed Lake Michigan and made his way partly by land and partly in Indian canoes along little lakes and streams, until he reached the Wisconsin River.

He had with him a friend named Joliet and several others. For seven days they floated in canoes down the Wisconsin, until, to their joy, they found themselves on the great river of the West, the mighty Mississippi. De Soto had discovered this river one hundred and thirty years before, and had followed it as far north as the State of Missouri. Marquette floated down it until he reached the mouth of the Arkansas River. Then he and his friends turned and paddled their canoes up the stream again until they reached the point they had started from.

This was a wonderful journey for that early period. To see a few bold and daring men, hundreds of miles away from their countrymen, alone among tribes of fierce Indians, toil-

ing through the forests of the West, and paddling in frail canoes along unknown and mighty lakes and streams, was to behold what has not often been seen in the history of the world. These men had no weapons in their hands. They had only the Bible. But Christian love and charity made them safer among the savages than if they had carried swords and muskets and been clothed from head to foot in armor of steel.

La Salle's Journey.—The next person to reach the Mississippi was a French gentleman, the Chevalier de La Salle. He knew what the English and the Spanish were doing, that they were taking possession of the New World, and he made up his mind that the French should own the great western country. So he got together a body of men, and began to explore the land beyond Lake Michigan, and to build forts and leave soldiers in them. He had many battles with the Indians, but he was not to be turned from his purpose.

At last he started on the great journey which he had long had in mind. With a party of French and Indians he crossed the country, paddling along the streams and carrying the canoes through the forests, until he reached the Mississippi.

It was then the year 1682, something more than two hundred years ago. Down the great stream they went, among tribes who had never before seen a white man. Everywhere La Salle took possession of the country for the King of France. In time they reached the mouth of the Mississippi, and there La Salle laid claim to all the vast country drained by that mighty stream and by all the streams that ran into it. This country he named Louisiana, and declared that it belonged to France, and to the king, Louis XIV.

La Salle's Later Life.—Then they went up the river again

until they reached their starting-point. La Salle now returned to France, where every one looked on him as a hero. The king gave him ships and men to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, and the adventurers sailed joyfully away.

But their journey ended very sadly. They could not find the Mississippi, and landed at a place in Texas. Here La Salle built a fort, and then started with part of the men to find the Mississippi. The journey was a terrible one. The river was found, and La Salle tried to make his way to Canada for help, but on the way he was killed by some of his men. And so ended the life of one of the greatest of American explorers.

The End of the Colony.—Some of the men got to Canada and told their story, and a party was sent to Texas to save those in the fort. But when they got there the men were dead and the fort was a ruin. The Spaniards had found them and put them all to death. This was the sad end of La Salle's great enterprise.

Succeeding Events.—But the French were not discouraged. Another colony was sent out in 1699 to make a settlement near the mouth of the Mississippi, and before many years New Orleans and other towns were laid out. These towns were very far away from the French settlements on the St. Lawrence River. Thousands of miles of land and water lay between them. Yet nearly the whole distance might be travelled by water along the great lakes of the North, the Mississippi River, and the streams which ran into it. The active French traders were not afraid to make long journeys, and many of them travelled the whole way from Quebec to New Orleans.

Before many years there were military posts at many points along this great water-way. Traders settled around

the forts and priests built churches near by, so that in time there was a little settlement at each fort.

The Valley of the Ohio.—All this went on for fifty years. Cities now stand where many of the French forts were built. But at that time there were not many French in America. In 1750 there were fifteen times as many English as French in the New World. In the country east of the Mississippi and south of the great lakes there were only about seven thousand five hundred Frenchmen.

The English were now making their way to the West. A company was formed, called the Ohio Company, to buy up land and get settlers to move westward. The lands of this company lay in Western Pennsylvania.

When the French saw what the English were doing they were alarmed. They were afraid they would lose the country if they did not make haste. So they built a strong fort on Lake Erie, where the city of Erie now stands. It became clear that before long they would have forts on the Ohio River.

Danger in the Air.—It was plain enough now that there would be trouble. The great rivals had advanced till they were near together. Both of them claimed to own the Valley of the Ohio. They were beginning a race to see who should first get possession of it, and that race could not go on very long before the dreadful work of war would begin. Whether the French or the English should own the great basin of the Ohio and the Mississippi was soon to be settled by the sword and the cannon, and by the death of thousands of men.

II.—GEORGE WASHINGTON.

Early Wars.—There had been fighting in America between the English and French two or three times before.

Every time a war broke out in Europe between these nations the settlers in America began to kill one another. In these wars most of the fighting was done by the Indians. We have already told how they attacked the settlements in New England and New York, and murdered the people.

The Action of Virginia.—But now a war was to have its beginning in America. The French and English stood face to face, like two dogs ready to fly at each other's throats. It was not long before the struggle began. Virginia claimed the country to which the French were sending their pioneers, and the Governor of Virginia made up his mind to ask them what they were doing, and to tell them that the land they were on belonged to his colony.

George Washington.—He soon picked out a messenger for this duty. This was a young man named George Washington, who was then only a little over twenty years old. He had been born in 1732, and it was now 1753. But he was known to be active and prudent. He had been a land surveyor, and was used to hardship. So Washington was chosen to go to the West and ask the French why they had built the fort at Presque Isle, and what they intended to do, and to warn them that they were on English land.

George Washington was born to be a great man, and he showed this while he was still a boy. Among his school-mates he was the same as he was among his countrymen afterwards. He settled all their disputes, and he would not let anything take place that was not just and fair. Whatever he had to do he did well. The books of exercises which he wrote at school are remarkable for their neatness and carefulness. When he was older he became a land surveyor, and his surveys are among the most accurate ever made. Later in life he managed his own lands, packed and shipped his own tobacco and flour, and kept his own books. His

books may still be seen. They were wonderfully well kept. As a boy and a man Washington was strictly honest and truthful. When his flour came into foreign ports the government agents did not inspect it. His name on the barrel was enough. It was well known that there was no lie in the Washington stamp. It would be well for the country if all public men would stamp their characters with the Washington stamp. This young man was destined to do a great work for America. We have now the first part of his public life to describe, but his name will come again into our work farther on.

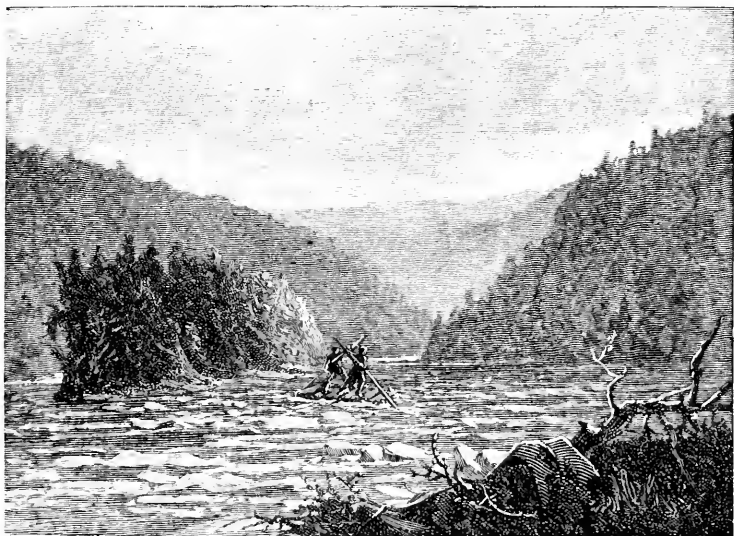
Washington's Journey.—The journey from Virginia to Lake Erie was a difficult one, for the country was wild and without roads, and it was the cold winter season. Washington went up the Potomac River till he reached the streams that flow into the Ohio. He followed these till he met the French commander. The Frenchman treated him very politely, but would not promise to leave the country. This was the word that Washington brought back to Virginia.

The journey back was terrible; much of it lay through the wild wintry forest. The rivers were full of broken ice, and had to be crossed on rafts. In crossing the Alleghany River, Washington was thrown into the water, and had to spend the night on an island, wet through and nearly frozen. At last he got back home with the answer of the French commander.

Fort Du Quesne.—Both sides saw that no time was to be lost. The French sent pioneers towards the Ohio. The Ohio Company decided to build a fort at a point which Washington had picked out. This was where the two rivers that form the Ohio come together, and where the city of Pittsburg now stands. As the French were so busy building forts, the English thought they ought to build some

too, so they sent a party for this purpose. But when the French saw what was being done they drove the English workmen away and finished the fort themselves. They gave it the name of Fort Du Quesne. That was the first step that led to the severe war that followed.

Fort Necessity.—At this time Washington was marching towards the place with about four hundred men who had



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE ALLEGHANY RIVER.

been enlisted in Virginia. A party of French soldiers came forward to meet him, and there was a fight in which Washington was victorious. But he was in a dangerous position, so he built a small fort which he called Fort Necessity. The fort was soon surrounded by a large body of French and Indians, and the Virginians had to surrender. This took place on July 4, 1754. The English force went back to

Virginia, where the people were much pleased with the skill and prudence of Washington, and the governor gave him the chief command of the Virginia soldiers.

England and France.—During this time the English and French were fighting in other places. The first part of the war was fought by the people of America only. But soon England and France were at war in Europe and began to send soldiers across the ocean to help the colonists. An army was sent to the disputed territory, under an officer named General Braddock.

General Braddock.—This general knew very well how to carry on war in Europe, but he knew nothing at all about fighting with the Indians, and he was too proud to let any one tell him. So he and his army, with some Virginians under Washington, set out to drive the French from Fort Du Quesne.

They marched slowly through the woods, making roads as they went, and wasting a great deal of time. By the time they got near the French fort several months had passed. Yet there were not many French there, and the Indians were not in a very good humor for fighting; so if Braddock had acted with common prudence he might soon have had the fort. But he knew too much to listen to anybody, and he soon got his army into trouble.

Braddock's Defeat.—Washington wanted to go ahead with his Virginians and drive the Indians from the woods; but Braddock would not let him, and he marched on, with banners flying and drums beating, until his army was in a deep ravine with steep banks and thick woods on each side. These woods were full of French and Indians in ambush.

Suddenly the hidden enemy began to fire. The soldiers were taken completely by surprise, and fell dead and wounded on every side. The Virginians under Washing-

ton knew what they were about, and got behind trees to fight; but Braddock would not let his soldiers do the same thing, but kept them in their ranks and made them stand still to be killed. They fired blindly into the woods, but did no harm to their foes, while hundreds of them were slain. When they could stand this no longer they turned and fled for their lives. Washington with his Virginians kept back the enemy, or many more of the British soldiers would have been slaughtered. It was the most terrible defeat in the early history of America.

The Result of the Battle.—The battle had lasted three hours, and seven hundred out of twelve hundred were killed. Braddock was mortally wounded, and all his officers were killed or wounded. Washington was the only officer that was not hurt, and he had two horses shot under him and four bullets through his coat. Long afterwards an old Indian chief said that he had fired many times at Washington during the battle, but that the young American brave bore a charmed life and could not be touched by his bullets.

The Indian Raids.—This defeat was a serious one for the colonies. The Ohio region was left to the French, while the Indians, who thought the English cowards, began to attack the settlements and murder all they could. All through the western part of Virginia the people had to flee for safety; their houses were burned, and the rifle and the tomahawk brought death to many of them. Washington was kept busy in fighting with the savage foes, and did this with great skill and courage, but he had a difficult task.

The Fort captured.—Three years afterwards Washington was sent again to take Fort Du Quesne. By this time the French had got the worst of the war, and when the French commander saw the English coming near he did not wait

for them. He marched his men out of the fort and left it to Washington to take possession.

The contest for the Valley of the Ohio ended in victory for the English. The French gave it up to their opponents, and never laid claim to it again. It was during this time that Washington learned the art of war, of which he was to make such excellent use in the coming war of the Revolution.

III.—THE WAR IN THE NORTH.

The Capture of Louisburg.—The war which had begun on the Ohio soon spread to other parts of the country.



THE SIEGE OF LOUISBURG.

There was much hard fighting in the North between New York and New England and the French settlements in

Canada. The British fleet also took part in the war. The French had a very strong fortress at the town of Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton. They thought that no force could capture it, but they were mistaken in this. It was captured in 1745 by a body of New England soldiers. At the end of the war it was given back to the French, but in 1758 it was again attacked by a strong English fleet and forced to surrender. The English never gave it up again.

Acadia.—The country which we now know as Nova Scotia and New Brunswick was called Acadia by the French. It was settled by people of French descent, many of whom had fine farms, and others lived by hunting and trapping. The peninsula of Nova Scotia had been taken from the French by the English in 1710, and was still held by them; but it had very few English settlers, and its people did not like to be under English rule.

The northern part of Acadia was still held by the French, and when the war began they built several forts on the Bay of Fundy, and got ready to try and drive the English from the country. But the English attacked these forts and took them all. While the fighting was going on many of the Acadians helped the French. The English did not like this. They said that they would not have spies and enemies in their own land, and that the people must take the oath of allegiance to England, and be ready to fight in the English armies if they should be needed.

This the Acadians would not do. All their feelings were with the French, and they would not help the English. Then the English said that they should be all sent out of the country, since they would not submit to the government.

The Acadians expelled.—Many of the Acadians were quiet and good citizens, but all who could be found were

marched to the sea-shore and put on board ships and sent away to the different English colonies. Some of them fought with the English and drove them away, but several thousand were taken from their homes and sent to live among strangers. Their houses were burned and their farms ruined to keep them from coming back.

This was a very cruel act. The English had reason to be angry with those Acadians who acted as spies and enemies; but most of the people were quiet and industrious, and all their crime was that they would not take an oath to bear arms against their countrymen. In time many of those who had been sent away returned and took the oath of allegiance to England; but others suffered many hardships, and died in foreign lands.

From Canada to New York.—We have spoken in a former chapter of the great water-way by which the French could get from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico. There is another water-way, that which leads from the St. Lawrence River to Lake Champlain and Lake George, and by way of the Hudson River to New York Bay. It was this route that Champlain had taken when he first set out to fight the Indians, and it was along these bodies of water that the remainder of the fighting took place.

The French Defences.—The French had built forts along the Niagara River and Lake Ontario, and also at Crown Point, at the southern end of Lake Champlain, and at Ticonderoga, at the northern end of Lake George. From these points they could easily send soldiers into New York and New England, so the English decided to try to take the forts.

The Battle of Lake George.—The English army in New York was led by General Johnson. There were many Indians with it, for the Iroquois tribes had hated the French

ever since they had fought with Champlain. While Johnson was marching north the French were marching south, and the two armies met at the southern end of Lake George. Here a battle took place in which the French were badly defeated. Hundreds of them were killed and the rest driven back. Johnson did not go on to capture the French forts, but stayed where he was, and built a fort which he called William Henry.

The French Successes.—During the next two or three years the French were everywhere successful. They captured Fort William Henry in 1757, and a terrible event took place there. The English were promised their lives if they would give up the fort, but as soon as they marched out the Indians fell upon them with tomahawk and scalping-knife and murdered many of them in cold blood. The French did nothing to save them. This was one of the most shameful massacres in American history.

Attack on Ticonderoga.—The next year General Abercrombie attacked Fort Ticonderoga with a strong army. But the French defended themselves bravely, and the English were forced to retreat in haste, after they had lost two thousand men.

The Turning of the Tide.—The war had now lasted for four years, and the French had been successful at nearly every point. They had held their forts on Lake Champlain and Lake George, and on the Ohio, and had defeated the English in nearly every battle. The English were much the stronger in numbers, and all they needed was good leaders. With these they would be sure to gain the victory.

In the year 1758 the tide turned. The English took several of the French forts, and in 1759 took several others. Ticonderoga and Crown Point were taken, and also the forts on Lake Ontario and the Niagara River. The French

were driven out of what the English claimed as their territory, and were confined to Canada. The English next made up their minds to try to drive the French from Canada.

The Siege of Quebec.—Canada had two important cities, Montreal and Quebec. Quebec was not easy to capture. It was built on the top of a high and steep hill, and was surrounded with strong walls, behind which were more than eight thousand men, commanded by the Marquis de Montcalm.

General Wolfe led an army of eight thousand men against this city, and for two or three months tried to take it, but



THE HEIGHTS OF QUEBEC.

he could not even get to the top of the hill on which it was built. At length he learned that there was a narrow path up the face of the bluff. One dark night he took his men in boats down the St. Lawrence River, and by the break of day they had climbed up this steep path and dragged their cannon to the top of the hill.

The Capture of the City.—Montcalm was astonished when he saw the English army before the walls of the city. If he had stayed behind these walls it is not likely they

could have taken it. But he hastily led his men out, thinking he could drive the English over the precipice before they all got up the hill. He was sadly mistaken. In the battle that followed the English gained a complete victory and Quebec fell into their hands.

General Wolfe received a mortal wound, and as he lay dying he heard loud cries of "They fly! they fly!" "Who fly?" he asked. "The French," was the answer. "God be praised!" he replied. "I die happy." Montcalm also fell, and when told that he must die, he said, "So much the better; I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

End of the War.—Montreal was taken the next year, and soon the war came to an end. A treaty was made between England, France, and Spain in 1763, by which France gave up to England all the country east of the Mississippi River, and to Spain all the country west of it. This was a great event for the English colonies. North America now belonged to two nations only, England and Spain.

Pontiac's Rebellion.—The French in Canada made some further trouble. There was a bold and brave Indian chief named Pontiac, who tried to drive the English back from the Ohio and the lakes, and perhaps from the whole country. The French secretly incited him to this. He made a league between several tribes, and a sudden attack was made on the English forts.

They took one fort by the trick of playing a game of ball before it. When the ball fell near the gate of the fort they rushed after it and into the open gate, near which sat their squaws, with tomahawks hidden under their blankets. These the warriors seized and killed nearly all the soldiers. The fort at Detroit was besieged for five months, and then the Indians gave up the siege. Several other forts were taken, but in the end the Indians were everywhere defeated.

This was the end of the French and Indian war, which had continued, at intervals, for seventy-five years. The English were everywhere victorious, and were now to have a few years of rest from war.

PART III.—QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

I. How far back from the coast did the English colonies extend? How far did their claims extend? Who held the back country? Where had the French forts and settlements? What were their intentions? What two things induced the French to explore the country? For what purpose did the traders travel? For what purpose the Jesuits? What did Marquette wish to do? Describe his journey. Did the priests need weapons to protect them from the Indians? Who, after Marquette, sought to explore the Mississippi? What else did he wish to do? In what year did he reach the Mississippi? Describe his journey. How was La Salle received in France? Where did his colony land? What became of him? What was the fate of the colony? Where did the French make a settlement in 1699? What city was laid out? How could the French get from Quebec to New Orleans? How were settlements formed along the route? How many more English than French were in America in 1750? What was the object of the Ohio Company? Where did the French build a fort? For what purpose? What did both the rival peoples claim? How was the dispute to be settled?

II. What did the Governor of Virginia decide to do? Whom did he select as messenger? How old was Washington then? Why was he chosen? What was he to say to the French? What can we say about the school-life of Washington? What did he do in older life? How were his books kept? How was his flour received in foreign lands? Describe Washington's journey. How did the French commander act? Describe Washington's return. What did the Ohio Company decide to do? What did the French do? How and with whom did the first fight take place? Why did Washington build Fort Necessity? What followed? What general did England send to America? What did he know about war? Describe his march. What did Washington want to do? How did Braddock lead his army on? Describe the battle and defeat. Was Washington hurt? What did an old Indian chief say about him? What followed this defeat? When was Fort Du Quesne taken? By whom? What did this war teach Washington?

III. When was Louisburg captured the first time? When the second time? What was the country of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick called by

the French? What part of it was taken by the English in 1710? What part was still held by the French? What success did the English gain? What did they ask the Acadians to do? Why did the Acadians refuse? What then did the English resolve to do? Tell how the Acadians were expelled. What is said about this act? Why was it cruel? What water-way leads from Canada to New York? Where did the French build forts? What was the result of the battle of Lake George? What fort did General Johnson build? When was this fort captured by the French? What terrible event took place? Describe Abercrombie's attack on Ticonderoga. How long were the French successful? When did the tide of success turn? What successes had the English? Which were the two important cities of Canada? How was Quebec defended? Who led an army against it? How did he get his men to the summit of the bluff? What did Montcalm do? Who gained the victory? What happened to General Wolfe? What were his last words? What were Montcalm's last words? What did England gain by the treaty of peace? What did Pontiac hope to do? Describe his attacks on the forts. Were there any more French and Indian wars?



PART IV.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

I.—THE TYRANNY OF ENGLAND.

The Story of the Revolution.—The story we have now to tell is one that every American should hear with pride. It is the story of how the people of America were ill treated by England, and how they declared they would not submit to be made slaves of, and fought bravely until they gained their liberty. They suffered dreadfully, and thousands of them lost their lives, but they would not yield, and struggled on and on until England was forced to give up the war and sign a treaty of peace with free America. This is what is known as the American Revolution.

The Navigation Acts.—What was this bad treatment of the Americans? That is what we have next to tell. They were ill used in a good many ways. Governors had been sent to them from England, and some of these acted as if they were kings and the people slaves. But what made the Americans most angry was that they were not allowed to trade where they pleased or make the articles they needed for their own use. They had built many ships, and for a while they sent out their goods to foreign countries and got other goods in return.

But the merchants of England did not like this. They wanted this trade for themselves. So they had laws passed which said that the Americans should not trade with any

country but England. All their rice, tobacco, and other products must be sent there and whatever they wanted in return must be brought from there. But the English would not pay as much for these goods as other countries, so the Americans lost much of their profit.

Then another law was made which said that no goods should be carried to or from England in American ships. All trade with England must be done in English ships. The American ships might rot at their wharves. Even the trade from one colony to another was partly stopped.

Restriction of Manufactures.—At the same time the people of America were not allowed to make anything for themselves. There was much iron dug from the mines, but it must all be sent to England, and pay a tax for going there. Then it was made into useful articles and sent back, and had to pay another tax. It was the same with other goods than those made of iron. The laws became so severe that a farmer could not even cut down a large tree on his own land without permission from the officers of the king.

At first the laws were not so strict as this. But as time went on, and the English merchants and manufacturers saw that the Americans were growing rich, they had the laws made more severe, until the Americans were allowed to do very little besides farming, and had to get everything but their food from England, in English ships.

The Laws evaded.—All this was hard to bear. When men have a chance to grow rich they do not like to work hard to make other men rich, while they stay poor. Many of the people of America refused to submit to the English laws. Some of them made and sold goods in spite of the laws. Others who owned ships sent them to foreign countries, and brought back goods on which no tax or duty was paid to the government.

This is what is called smuggling. The officers of the government tried to put a stop to it. A law was passed which said that the king's officers might enter and search any house where they thought that smuggled goods were hidden. The papers authorizing this were called "Writs of Assistance." Nothing could have made the people more angry than this. They said that "every man's house is his castle," and that no officer had a right to enter a dwelling-house on mere suspicion. Thus, as every one may see, there was getting to be bad feeling between the Americans and the English.

The Right of Taxation.—But the resistance of the people only made the English government more severe. As the merchants and manufacturers of England were growing rich from the labor of the Americans, the government thought it also ought to have more American money than it was receiving. The French and Indian war had cost England a great deal of money, and the English government claimed that as this money had been spent for the good of the colonies, they should help to pay it back. The colonies were paying much money to it already in the way of the duty on all goods sent by ships into or out of the country. This was an indirect tax, but the government claimed that it had the right to lay a direct tax also.

The American Reply.—The people of the colonies answered that they were willing to tax themselves and pay the money to the government, but that no one else had the right to tax them. They would not pay taxes levied by the English Parliament, because they had no one to speak for them in that Parliament. If the government wanted to tax them it should let them send representatives to look after their interests.

The Principle of Taxation.—All this was reasonable.

Every Englishman at home claimed that right, and the Americans thought they ought to have it too. But the government would not listen to them. It had made up its mind to treat them as slaves, and force them to pay what taxes it pleased without giving them a voice in the making of the laws. The rulers of England did not know what they were doing. They had no idea how strongly the Americans were set against tyranny. They were soon to find out.

The Stamp Act.—The first direct tax law was passed in 1765. It was called the “Stamp Act,” and declared that all legal papers drawn in America, such as deeds, bills, contracts, and the like, must be made on stamped paper, which paper was to be sold by the tax collectors. There was nothing very wrong in this. Laws of this kind have long existed in England. We have had them in the United States, and have paid the tax cheerfully. It was the way the law was passed that made all the trouble. It was as if England had said, “We intend to tax you when and how we please, and you shall have nothing to do with it except to pay the taxes.” This was the beginning of the dispute which in ten years was to bring the country into war.

The whole people grew angry when they heard of this law. They said that they had had nothing to do with making it and that they would not submit to it. Patrick Henry, a great orator of Virginia, declared that the people, and only the people, had a right to tax the people. They could vote taxes in their own assemblies, if they were asked to, but no other body of law-makers had the right to vote taxes for them to pay.

Repeal of the Stamp Act.—The stamps were sent to America, but the people would not use them. In some places they burned them. In others they forced the stamp officers

to resign, or made images of them and burned these images before their doors. They declared that till the act was repealed they would not use English goods, but would make their own. They would all wear homespun clothes, and would eat no mutton, so that they could have more wool to weave into cloth.

Agents were sent to London to try and have the Stamp Act repealed. Benjamin Franklin was one of these. He did much to let the members of Parliament see how the American people felt. In 1766 the Stamp Act was repealed, because it was clear that it could not be enforced. No American would buy a sheet of the stamped paper.

Soldiers sent to America.—In 1767 taxes were laid on tea, glass, paints, and other articles, and soldiers were sent to America to force the people to pay these taxes. The Americans were also ordered to pay for the support of these soldiers. They answered that this was not just. They did not want to be treated like a nation that had been conquered in war. Their protest made the king very angry, and he sent four regiments of soldiers to Boston to support the tax officers. This was done because the people of Boston were very violent against the new taxes. The presence of the soldiers made them more angry still, and disputes and quarrels arose between the people and the soldiers. One day, in 1770, a fight took place between some soldiers and a party of the citizens of Boston. The soldiers fired and several persons were killed. This added much to the angry feeling of the people. They called this affair the “Boston Massacre,” and as the news of it spread over the country the colonists everywhere began to think of fighting for their rights.

The Tax on Tea.—For several years things went on in this way, the people growing more angry with the English

government. As they would not pay the taxes, Parliament tried another plan. They took off all the taxes except a small one on tea. This was such a trifle that they thought no one would object to it. They did not perceive that it was not the money that the Americans cared for, but the principle. As soon as the tax was laid the colonists refused to buy tea, though they had before used a great deal of it.

The Boston Tea-Party.—Then the king, George III., made up his mind to force them to take the tea. Ship-loads

of it were sent to all the American ports. But the people, who were then using the leaves of various plants to make tea of, would not have the English tea. In New York and Philadelphia the captains were ordered to take their tea back again to England. In Charleston the tea was stored in damp warehouses, where it soon moulded and became useless. In Annapolis the tea was burned. In Boston the governor refused to send back the tea, but the people would not let it be unloaded. At last a party of young men dressed like Indians ran to the wharves, rushed on board the vessels, broke open the chests, and emptied all the tea into the harbor. This is what has been called



BOSTON TEA-PARTY.

the “Boston Tea-Party.” It put an end to the effort of Parliament to tax the Americans.

The Boston Port Bill.—When the news of this act reached England the king was furious, and it was determined that Boston should be severely punished. So a bill was passed called the “Boston Port Bill.” It forbade any vessel to enter or leave Boston, except those with wood or provisions, and

even these had trouble to get in. The whole trade of the port was cut off, and the town was so full of soldiers that the law could easily be carried out.

Threats of War.—This law took effect on June 1, 1774. It made the people of the whole country very indignant. Provisions and money were sent to Boston from all the colonies. Instead of the Americans being frightened, they were more determined than ever. It began to look as if it must all end in war, and the people got their arms ready, and drilled, and formed companies ready to march at a minute's warning. These were called "Minute-Men." In September, 1774, all the colonies sent delegates to Philadelphia, to meet and talk over the troubles. This assembly was called the First Continental Congress. It sent an address to the king, and advised the people to stop all trade with England till the tax laws were repealed. It declared that the people of America had the right to govern and to tax themselves, and that they would not submit to force, but would defend themselves against oppression. Such was the state of the country at the beginning of the year 1775.

II.—THE WORK OF THE MINUTE-MEN.

Growth of the Colonies.—We have next to describe the greatest event in American history, that by which the people of America became free, and began their growth from a group of weak colonies into one of the noblest nations on the face of the earth.

It was now a little more than a hundred and fifty years since the English had first settled in America. In that century and a half the colonies had grown to be strong and were becoming united. There were more than two millions of people in them, and they were fast growing rich and pros-

perous. Since the close of the French and Indian war they had made great progress.

Ten Years of Tyranny.—In 1765 no one in America thought of becoming free from England. In 1775 most of the people of the country wanted to become free. That was what England had done in ten years by trying to make slaves of the Americans.

The Feeling of the People.—At the opening of the eventful year 1775, Boston was the centre of the troubles. The king had ruined its business, taken from many of its people the means of living, and filled it with soldiers. But all through New England the people were getting ready to fight, drilling as soldiers, and collecting arms, gunpowder, and other warlike articles in convenient places. The whole country was like a barrel of gunpowder, ready to explode if fire touched it. We have now to tell how the English applied the fire.

The Stores at Concord.—The Americans had collected some military stores at the town of Concord, near Boston. General Gage, who commanded the soldiers in Boston, determined to destroy these. So one night he sent out a body of troops to march secretly to Concord and destroy them before the people could know what was being done. He did not understand the spirit of the people he was dealing with. It is very easy to throw a stone into a hornets' nest, but it is not so easy to get away from the stings of the hornets. This General Gage was soon to find out.

Paul Revere's Ride.—The people of Boston were watching the soldiers. They had some idea of the plans of the British, and were ready for them. As soon as the troops began to move a signal light was hung in a church window. On the other side of the river a man named Paul Revere was watching for this light. The moment he saw it he

mounted his horse and rode at full speed through the country. At every house and village he woke the people and told them the British were coming. At once the men seized their rifles and powder-horns and hastened to the appointed place of meeting. By daybreak a party of them were collected in the village of Lexington, on the road to Concord. Samuel Adams and John Hancock, two of the patriot leaders, were at Lexington, and the British officers had orders to arrest them. But they were warned by Revere and made their escape before the troops arrived.



PAUL REVERE'S RIDE.

The Fight at Lexington.—The soldiers reached Lexington about four o'clock in the morning of April 19, 1775. There were two or three hundred of them, and they found about sixty armed farmers drawn up on the green. "Disperse, ye rebels," cried the English officer. "Lay down your arms and disperse." Then the soldiers fired, and seven of the Americans fell dead. Others were wounded. That was the first bloodshed in the Revolutionary war. With that fire of musketry began the war that was to set America free.

BATTLE OF LEXINGTON.



The Retreat from Concord.—The soldiers hurried on to Concord, where they destroyed all the supplies they could find. But the Americans had been busy during the night carrying their stores to the woods. A strong force of minute-men had gathered at Concord. The British fired on these and the Americans fired back. Several of the soldiers were killed and wounded, and the others retreated in disorder.

But it was when the soldiers began to march back to Boston that they found the hornets were out of their nest and ready to sting them. They had sixteen miles to go, and all along this distance the minute-men were gathered behind trees and stone walls, firing on them at every step. The British fell like dead leaves. At last they ran in a panic. Few or none of them would have got back, only that another strong force of soldiers marched out and met them at Lexington.

There were eighteen hundred of them now, but the farmers fired on them all the way to Boston, and they were glad enough to get under shelter of the guns of their ships of war. They had been saying to themselves that the Americans were cowards and would not fight. They were not likely to say that again.

The People in Arms.—The day before April 19 the country had been at peace. The day after it was at war. The story of the fight went like wildfire through the country. Everywhere the farmers left their ploughs and seized their rifles. In hundreds and thousands they hurried towards Boston. Soon there were twenty thousand men around that city. The British had made their last march out of Boston by land. When they went again they would have to go as they had come, in their ships by sea.

Capture of Ticonderoga.—The “Green Mountain Boys,”

of Vermont, did not march to Boston. Ethan Allen led them to Fort Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, which they captured, May 10, without firing a gun. The fort at Crown Point was taken in the same way, and many cannon captured.

Breed's Hill fortified.—Such was the opening of the war. Now we must tell of the first great battle. One dark night the Americans went out to build a fort of earth on Bunker Hill, near Boston; but they found that Breed's Hill was still nearer, so they built their fort on that. When day broke, June 17, the British found that there was a long wall of earth where none had been the night before. Behind this wall lay men with rifles in their hands. There was only one thing to be done: they must drive the Americans out of these earthworks or they could not stay in Boston.

The First Battle of the War.—The ships began firing, but the Americans went on with their work. Then three thousand soldiers crossed the river in boats and began to march up the hill. The American militia, under General Putnam and Colonel Prescott, lay behind their bank of earth and saw these soldiers—some of the best trained in the world—marching steadily upward. No one had dreamed that raw volunteers could stand before such veteran troops, yet the Americans did not flinch. “Aim low. Don't fire till you can see the whites of their eyes,” said the American general. So they waited till the soldiers were close



PUTNAM.

to the works and then fired. Every shot told. Down went dozens of men. No living beings could stand such a fire, and the soldiers turned and ran hastily down the hill. They had found out to their sorrow what American marksmen could do.

They came on once more and were met with a second terrible volley. Down the hill they ran in a panic again. Their officers had great trouble to get them to face a third time the American fire. But the Americans were now nearly out of powder. They fired once more, and then used their guns as clubs to drive back the soldiers. When the British found that the firing had stopped, they came on with the bayonet, while the ships fired cannon-balls into the works. The Americans now had to retreat. They were followed by the furious soldiers and many of them were killed in the retreat. But they had killed more than twice as many as they lost, and had taught the world that American militia were not afraid to fight British regulars.

The Action of Congress.—We must tell more rapidly what followed. The Second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia in May, 1775. There was much to be done now. Laws had to be passed for the whole country, and preparations made to carry on the war, for the people were all determined that it should go on. General Washington was made commander of the army at Boston, and money was voted for the purposes of the war. The people were willing enough to pay taxes to their own Congress, though they would not to the English Parliament. Their feeling was afterwards expressed in these words: “Millions for defence; not one cent for tribute.”

Evacuation of Boston.—Now there was war in earnest. Washington drilled the army at Boston and did his best to make soldiers out of farmers. It took a long time to do this, and it was the spring of the next year before he was ready. Then one night he built strong earthworks on Dorchester Heights, south of Boston. The British general looked at these works and quickly saw that he could not take them without losing many of his men, and that he could not stay

in Boston if he did not take them. So he decided to leave. On March 17, 1776, his men were marched on board the vessels, which set sail for Halifax, never to return to Boston. The same day the Americans took possession of the city which they had so long besieged.

The Attack on Quebec.—While this was going on the Americans tried to take Canada. Two armies were led there, one under General Montgomery and one under General Arnold. Montreal was captured and the army marched to Quebec. This city proved too strong. General Montgomery was killed, and General Arnold, who now took command, stayed there during the winter, but had to retreat the next spring. The British followed him down Lake Champlain and had a naval battle with him on that lake. The Americans had fancied that the Canadians would join them, but they refused to do so, and Canada remained a British province.

Fort Moultrie defended.—There is one more event of importance that took place at this time. The English government thought that it ought to make sure of the Southern colonies. So in June a fleet was sent to Charleston, South Carolina. But it was soon found that the Southerners were as determined not to be slaves as the Northerners. Fort Moultrie, at the mouth of the harbor, was built of logs of the soft palmetto wood. The balls from the ships sunk in these and did little harm. Those from the fort did great damage to the ships. In the end the fleet had to turn and sail away.

Brave Sergeant Jasper.—There was one event of this battle that is well worth telling. During the fight the flag-staff on the fort was cut by a ball, and the flag fell on the sand at the foot of the wall. A bold young sergeant, named Jasper, sprang down where the bullets were coming in like

hail, seized the flag, and soon had it floating proudly again on the fort. This has always been looked upon as one of the bravest deeds of the whole war.

Footsteps of Freedom.—And now we must finish this part of our story by telling what turned the war from a rebellion into a revolution. When the Americans began to fight, it was done to teach the king and his government that they would not pay taxes if they were not allowed to help make the laws. But many of them thought that America ought to be free, and as the war went on this feeling spread widely among the people. They quit fighting for their rights under the British government, and began to fight for their freedom from that government.

The Continental Congress was still in session at Philadelphia, and the desire for freedom grew as strong among the delegates as it was among the people. The first motion for liberty was made on June 7, 1776, by Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia. He moved that the colonies, one and all, “of right ought to be free and independent States.”

The Declaration of Independence.—Five men were then appointed as a committee to draw up a Declaration of Independence. On this committee were Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Thomas Jefferson. Jefferson wrote the Declaration, which was immediately brought before Congress, and adopted by it on the 4th of July, 1776. All the members signed it, and this valuable old paper still exists, with their signatures to it. As soon as word came that it had passed there rang out loud and stirring peals from the bell of the old State-House, on which was the inscription, “Proclaim liberty



JEFFERSON.

throughout the land to all the inhabitants thereof." The news had been told to the old bell-ringer, and he pulled at the rope with all his might, while every stroke of the bell seemed to send the word "Liberty" ringing over the land. Everywhere the people rejoiced to learn that they had been declared free. The statue of King George, in New York, was thrown into the dirt of the streets, and the arms of England



READING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE TO THE PEOPLE.

were torn down from the public buildings of the cities and burned in the streets, while the flag of Great Britain ceased to float anywhere in the new republic, for at that time there was not a British soldier on American soil.

It was a grand declaration that had been made, and all lovers of liberty throughout the world heard of it with gladness. It said that a new nation was born upon the

earth, and that the people of America were no longer fighting for the right to tax themselves, but for the right to govern themselves. But many dark days were to pass before they could gain the privilege of doing so in peace.*

III.—THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE.

The Meaning of the Declaration.—The people of America had declared that they were free and independent, but that did not make them so. They were to have years of hard fighting and great suffering before they could really become free. But now they had something of value to fight for. They were no longer troubled about paying taxes at the command of the English Parliament. They had declared that in future they would make their own laws, lay their own taxes, and carry on their own affairs, and that no other nation should rule them. That is what was meant by the Declaration of Independence, adopted on the 4th of July, 1776; and that is what has made the 4th of July ever since a day to be celebrated. It is the greatest day in the history of America.

The Loss of New York.—After the Declaration the war went on more fiercely than before. The British had been driven out of Boston, so they decided to take New York. Washington tried to defend it, but he did not have men enough, and after a hard battle on Long Island he had to

* The first Declaration of Independence in America was made by a convention of delegates in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, in May, 1775. They were chosen by the militia of that county, and were in session when the news of the battle of Lexington was received. They at once passed resolutions which declared the colonies to be free from English rule and entitled to govern themselves. This action was well received throughout Western North Carolina, and a copy of the resolutions was sent to Congress at Philadelphia.

retreat and give up the city. The British army held New York from that time till the end of the war.

The Retreat across New Jersey.—The country was now in a sad state. Washington's army was not half as strong as that of his enemies. Very few of the men were trained soldiers. They were short of powder, guns, provisions, and all that an army needs. It was now the winter of 1776. Washington found that he could not hold his own against the British, so he had to retreat. He marched his poor, ragged, hungry men south across New Jersey, and as he went he burnt the bridges to keep the British back. When he got to the Delaware River, he took possession of all the boats that could be found, and had his army rowed across. The British quickly came up, but Washington's army was safe. There was a river between them, and no boats for the British to cross in.

The Feeling of the People.—The British were full of hope and joy, for they thought the fighting was nearly at an end, and settled down to pass the winter in peace. All through Europe it was believed that the American cause was ruined, and that the colonists would have to submit. Many of the Americans thought so too. They saw their army growing smaller every day, and knew that most of the men would go home on the 1st of January, as the time for which they had enlisted would end then. They had joined the army only for the year, and not many new men were coming to take their place. The people everywhere were disheartened, and many thought there was no chance of success.

Washington crosses the Delaware.—But there was one man that did not think so, and that man was George Washington. He waited till Christmas, and then led his men across the Delaware into New Jersey. It was a terrible

crossing; the weather was very cold, and the river full of cakes of floating ice. Yet he got the army across and marched all night towards Trenton, where a British force was feasting and frolicking without the thought of an enemy. This force was made up of Hessians,—soldiers from Germany who had been hired from their rulers and sent over by England to fight the Americans.

Trenton and Princeton.—It was early in the morning when Washington reached the town. The Hessians were taken by surprise, many of them were killed and wounded, and a thousand taken prisoners. A few days afterwards Washington met another British force near Princeton and defeated them. Soon after that the British left New Jersey and Washington remained in possession. The Americans who had been in despair now became full of hope. In Europe the feeling changed. It began to be thought that America would win, and everybody spoke of George Washington as the great hero of the age.

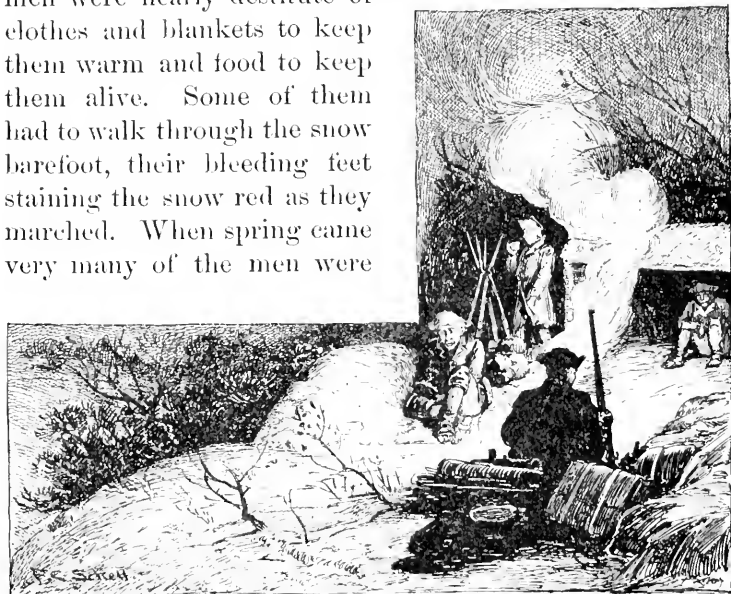
Philadelphia captured.—The year 1777 was an important year of the war. In the Middle States the Americans lost ground, but in the North they gained a great victory. The British left New York, with a strong fleet and a large army, and sailed up Chesapeake Bay. Washington hastened to meet them, and a severe battle was fought on the Brandywine Creek, below Philadelphia, at which the Marquis de La Fayette, a distinguished French officer, an aide to General Washington, was severely wounded. The Americans were defeated and had to fall back, and the British army marched into Philadelphia.

The Winter at Valley Forge.—Some other fighting took place, and there was a severe battle at Germantown, near



LA FAYETTE.

Philadelphia. But the British could not be driven from the city, and when winter came on the American army went into winter-quarters at a place called Valley Forge, northwest of Philadelphia. This winter was the most terrible one of the whole war. The weather was very cold, and the men were nearly destitute of clothes and blankets to keep them warm and food to keep them alive. Some of them had to walk through the snow barefoot, their bleeding feet staining the snow red as they marched. When spring came very many of the men were



IN CAMP AT VALLEY FORGE.

dead. Cold and hunger and sickness had been more fatal to them than the guns of the enemy. Yet those that lived were good patriots still, and as ready to fight for their country as before. And Washington never despaired.

Burgoyne's March.—In the North, as we have said, the Americans had gained a great victory, and this gave spirit to the suffering army in Pennsylvania. A powerful British army had marched down from Canada by the old route of

the French, that of Lake Champlain and Lake George. They thought they could cut New England off from New York, and thus divide the colonies into two parts. They took all the old forts,—Ticonderoga, Crown Point, and others. Another army was coming up the Hudson to meet them, and everything looked bad for the Americans.

The Battle of Bennington.—But the men of that region were everywhere marching, rifle in hand, to defend their country. The Iroquois Indians had joined the British, but these were scared off and gave up the fight. The parties of the British sent out to collect food were attacked by the Americans. One of these parties was met at Bennington, Vermont, by General Stark, with his “Green Mountain Boys,” and badly defeated. When the battle began Stark called out to his men, “There are the red-coats. Before night they are ours, or Molly Stark is a widow.” And he meant what he said; before night he had six hundred prisoners and the rest of the British were retreating in dismay.

Surrender of Burgoyne.—It was not long before Burgoyne, the British commander, found that he had led his men into a trap from which he could not get them out. He had gone so far south that he could not return, nor could he march any farther onward. The Americans were everywhere around him. His army was short of food, and he did not dare to send out parties in search of it, for fear they would be captured. He made two fierce attacks on the American earthworks, but could not take them. Finally he had to surrender his whole army to the Americans. This took place at Saratoga, October 17, 1777. It was one of the most important events of the war, and had a wonderful effect on the spirits of the Americans and on the feelings of the people of Europe. It was, in fact, the turning-point of the war.

The Treaty with France.—The next year France made a treaty with America and sent over a large fleet to help in the war. This fleet did little in the way of service, but it gave hope to the Americans, while its presence discouraged the English. Their government now offered to do away with all the laws to which the Americans objected, if they would lay down their arms and surrender. This offer came too late. The Americans had determined to be free, and nothing less would satisfy them now.

The Retreat from Philadelphia.—In 1778 the British in Philadelphia began to fear that if they stayed there much longer they might be caught in as bad a trap as Burgoyne had been. The Americans were gathering around them, and there was danger that the Delaware might be closed against their ships. So they started on a hasty march across New Jersey to New York. Washington followed them, fought with them, and captured some of them, but the main army got safely to New York.



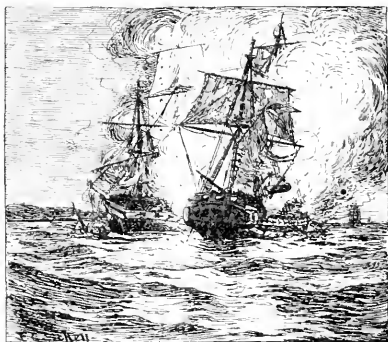
ANTHONY WAYNE.

Mad Anthony Wayne.—During 1778 and 1779 there was not much done. A British fleet sailed south and took the city of Savannah. This was the first victory the British had gained in the Southern States. In the North the Americans were victorious in one important fight. General Wayne, or "Mad Anthony Wayne," as he was afterwards called, made a sudden attack on Stony Point, a fort on the Hudson River. He took it with the bayonet, without firing a shot, and captured some very valuable stores.

The Massacre of Wyoming.—One of the most dreadful events of the war took place in the summer of 1778. A

band of Indians, British, and tories made an attack on the beautiful Valley of Wyoming, in Northern Pennsylvania. They took the fort, which had in it only old men, women, and children, and killed them all without mercy. The whole settlement was destroyed, and few of the inhabitants escaped the cruel tomahawk.

Captain Paul Jones.—One great battle took place on the sea. Paul Jones, a brave American captain, sailed with a few ships all round the coast of England, and kept the whole island in alarm. At length he met a British war vessel, the *Serapis*. His ship was called the *Bonhomme Richard*. The fight that followed was one of the most desperate that ever took place on the sea. The *Bonhomme Richard* was set on fire, and was so full of cannon-ball holes that it began to sink, but Paul Jones fought on. In the end the British surrendered. Captain Jones placed his men on board the *Serapis* and sailed away in triumph, leaving his own vessel to sink. There was no surrender in Captain Paul Jones, and he is looked upon as one of the bravest men that ever sailed the seas.



THE BONHOMME RICHARD AND THE SERAPIS.

The Treason of Arnold.—In 1780 the war was nearly all in the South. Only one important event took place in the North. Benedict Arnold, an American general of great skill and courage, but of a sullen temper, became angry because he thought that he had not been fairly treated, and

that other men had received the honor which he believed to be due to him. His discontent became so great in the end that he determined to turn traitor to his country. So he asked Washington to give him command of West Point, a strong fort on the Hudson River. As soon as he got hold of it he laid plans to surrender it to the British.

The Capture of André.—Major André, a young British officer, was sent to consult with him. On his way back to New York, in disguise, André was taken prisoner by some Americans. They searched him, and in his stocking they found papers which told what his business had been. Arnold escaped in a boat to a British war vessel in the river, but he did not succeed in giving the fort to the British. Every one felt pity for Major André, who was a fine young man; but he had been taken as a spy, and he was hanged as a spy.

The South Carolina Partisans.—During 1780 and 1781 the war was mostly in the South. The British captured Charleston, and soon had all South Carolina and Georgia in their hands. For a while there was no army to fight them; but some brave and bold men—Marion, Sumter, and others—got small bodies of soldiers together, and gave the British no end of trouble. They hid in the swamps, and attacked every small body of British soldiers they could meet. Marion was called the “Swamp Fox.” The British thought it was very cowardly in him that he would not come out into the open field “to fight like an officer and a gentleman.” But when the time came they found him as brave in the open field as he had been in the swamps.

Generals Greene and Cornwallis.—In 1781, General Greene took command of the army in the South. He was a very skilful officer, fought the British at every opportunity, and even when he was beaten he managed so that they got no good from their victory. At last General Cornwallis,

who commanded the British army in the South, marched north to Virginia. Benedict Arnold, the traitor, was there with a British force, doing all the damage he could.

The Surrender of Cornwallis.—Cornwallis made Yorktown his head-quarters. Here he threw up earthworks, and waited for help from New York. Washington, who had been pretending that he was going to attack New York, now saw his chance, and marched south with the greatest speed. At the same time a French fleet sailed into York River to keep off any British ships that might come from New York. Very soon Cornwallis found that his army was surrounded, while cannon-balls were battering his works to pieces. He made an attempt to escape, but did not succeed, and was forced to surrender. This event took place on the 19th of October, 1781.

The Treaty of Peace.—It was the last event of the war. There was no more fighting, and America was free. Two years afterwards a treaty of peace was signed, in which England acknowledged the freedom of America. From that time forward the American people have taken their place among the nations of mankind, under the title of "The United States of America,"—a title which now belongs to one of the greatest nations upon the earth.

IV.—THE PEOPLE AND THE COUNTRY.

The People and their Ways.—What kind of a nation was it that was made by the Declaration of Independence? How many people were in it, and what were their modes of life? That is what we have next to consider. At the time of the Revolution, America was very different from what it had been a hundred years before, and very different from what it had become a hundred years after. So this is a

good resting-point, where we can stop and take a look at the people, and see how they lived and what they were doing.

The Population of America.—We cannot say just how many people there were in America at that time, but there were more than two millions, possibly two and a half millions. This was a small population for a country of such size, extending fifteen hundred miles along the sea-coast and for some distance back into the interior. But this territory was very thinly settled. Even along the sea-coast the greater part of it was a wilderness, mostly covered with forest trees. The towns were small and far apart, and the largest cities had not more than twenty thousand inhabitants. The people in those days thought that New York and Philadelphia were important cities, but now we would look on them as only good-sized country towns.

The State of the Interior.—Few of the settlements extended far back from the sea-coast, or from the great rivers. In New York most of the settlers kept near to the Hudson; in Pennsylvania they did not go far from the Delaware. The back country was yet in great part covered by forests, and was the home of the Indians and of white hunters. In the South there were more people. In Virginia and the Carolinas they had gone much farther back from the coast. Daniel Boone, a bold and daring hunter, had led a party over the mountains into Kentucky. Some others had gone to Tennessee. But these few men had to live with rifle in hand, for their lives were every minute in danger. Daniel Boone had many adventures with the Indians, but he escaped all peril and lived to be an old man.

Whence the People came.—The people of America had come from many countries of Europe. There were Germans in Pennsylvania and Dutch in New York. Along the Delaware there were Swedes, and in parts of the South there

were settlements of French and of Highlanders from Scotland. But most of the people were of English descent, and the others by degrees took up the language and the ways of the English, so that in time all these unlike people grew together into one nation.

The Farming Population.—Most of the people of America were farmers. In those days there were none of the great factories and workshops which we now see almost everywhere. The soil was rich and gave plentiful crops, and there might be seen fine farm-houses, large barns full of corn, wheat, and hay, and great flocks of sheep and cattle in the fields. New England and the Middle colonies were famous for sheep and corn. Nearly everything was done at home. While the men worked in the fields, the women spun wool and flax and made most of the clothing for the family. The farmer had to be a mechanic also. He made most of the things he used. Even the nails he needed were hammered out by him during the winter. The children were kept busy, too, though there were schools where they could get some little education.

Agriculture of the South.—In the South agriculture was also the principal business of the country. Here the land was divided into great plantations, and large crops of tobacco, rice, sugar, etc., were raised. Much tar and pitch were made in North Carolina. These were sent to Europe and sold or exchanged for other goods, and the people of that section grew rich. We have already told how the planters and their slaves lived on these great plantations.

New England Commerce.—But the people of America were not all farmers. Many of them built ships and engaged in commerce. Long before the war the cities of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia had a large trade. Many ships came and went between these cities and Eng-

land, and some went to France and Spain to bring back cargoes of wine and silks. This was against the English



THE OLD-TIME SPINNING-WHEEL.

law, but the people thought this law unjust and did not hesitate to break it. Vessels were built in Boston and sent to

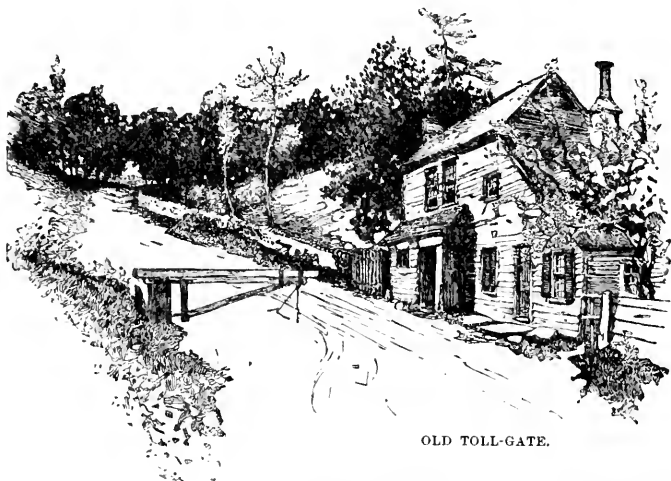
the West Indies, where they were traded off for rum and sugar, for which articles there was much demand in those days. Many more were sent to England and sold there. As early as 1763, New England had a thousand ships in its trade, besides the vessels of the hardy fishermen of the coast. Many of these ships were sent in search of whales, which were then far more plentiful than now.

Manufacturing Industry.—There was not much manufacturing done in America. The laws of England had forbidden the people to make goods for themselves. They were watched closely, yet they managed to make some things. In New England there were a few mills for working iron. Hats were made of furs. In Pennsylvania very good leather was made. But the merchants of England did all they could to put a stop to this, and to make the Americans buy everything from them.

Of course they had to build their own houses, and to do many things which could not be done for them across the ocean. And after the Revolution they quickly began to do many other things for themselves, so that the commerce and manufactures of America increased very rapidly. There were several newspapers printed, but they were very small compared with those we see to-day. The first newspaper in America was *The News Letter*, which was started in Boston in 1704. In 1775 each of the cities of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia had four newspapers.

Travel in America.—Not much can be said for the cities of that period. Many of the great cities of to-day were then small villages, or were still forest land. Boston had less than eighteen thousand people; New York over twenty thousand, and Philadelphia over thirty thousand. Baltimore and Charleston were much the largest cities in the South, their populations being from twelve to fifteen thou-

sand each. To travel from city to city was no easy task. There were some good roads in the North, but in the South the roads were very poor. In winter and spring most of the roads were little more than a series of mud-holes. The fastest stage-coach between New York and Philadelphia took two days for the trip, and it was a long and tiresome journey from Boston to New York. Therefore the people



OLD TOLL-GATE.

of the different colonies had very little to do with one another. There is more travel in a day now than there was in a year then.

The Condition of the Cities.—There were some handsome houses in the cities, but not many. In New York trees were planted before the houses, and there were railings on the roofs, so that people could sit there on summer evenings to enjoy the cool air. There were lamps in the streets. Broadway was thought a splendid avenue, though it was not very long and soon ended in the open country.

Philadelphia was then the most important city in the

country. It had been laid out by William Penn with broad and regular streets, while those of New York and Boston were crooked and narrow. Yet, much as it was spoken of in that day, it was a mere dwarf of a city compared with the present Philadelphia, and extended but a short distance back from the banks of the Delaware.

Equality and Habits of the People.—There were no men of great riches in those days. Very few men in the country had ten thousand dollars a year to spend. Most of the people were nearly equal in wealth. There was little poverty and little riches. The people were simple in their manners, and did not live expensively. One of their worst faults was their fondness for liquor. They drank much more than people do now, and drunkenness was very common.

Extent of the United States.—The country which the people had won for themselves by their hard fight with England was much smaller than the United States of our present maps. Canada was held by England. Its people had shown no wish to be free. In the South, Florida belonged to Spain; but Florida then reached farther north than it does now, and had a strip of land fifty miles wide extending along the Gulf of Mexico to the Mississippi River, so that it cut off the United States from the Gulf. And all the vast country that lies west of this river belonged to Spain. The United States of that day lay between the Mississippi River on the west and the Atlantic Ocean on the east, and between Canada on the north and Florida on the south. It was a great country then. It has grown to be a much greater country since.

The States of the Union.—This country was divided into thirteen States. These were the same as the States which now lie along or near the Atlantic, except Maine and Vermont, which did not become States till afterwards. They

were called the United States of America, but they were not very closely united. Each of them was almost like a separate nation, for Congress had very little power over them. They sent some of their wisest men to Philadelphia to form part of the Congress which met there, but they did not give them much power or authority. They had to gain their freedom first. There would be time enough afterwards to form a strong nation out of the several colonies.

PART IV.—QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

I. In what ways were the Americans ill used by the English? What laws were passed about their trade? What was done about American ships? Were Americans allowed to make goods for themselves? What did the English want them to do? Did the Americans obey the new laws? What law was passed to stop smuggling? How did the Americans like this? Why did the English government wish to tax the Americans? What reply did the Americans make? What did the government do? What was the character of the Stamp Act? What did Patrick Henry declare? How did the people receive the Stamp Act? Who was sent to London to get the Stamp Act repealed? What other taxes were laid? What was done to make the people pay these taxes? Why were soldiers sent to Boston? What is meant by the "Boston Massacre"? What did the Parliament next do about the taxes? Were the Americans willing to pay the tax on tea? Why not? How did they receive the cargoes of tea? What was done at Boston? What was the Boston Port Bill? Did this frighten the people? What did they do? When and where did the "First Continental Congress" meet? What action did it take?

II. What was the population of the colonies at the time of the disputes with England? What had England done in ten years? What city was the centre of the rebellious feeling? Where had the people collected stores? What did General Gage do? Describe Paul Revere's ride. On what day did the soldiers reach Lexington? What happened there? What was done at Concord? Describe the retreat from Concord. How did the people of New England receive the news of this fight? What did Ethan Allen and the Green Mountain Boys do? Where did the Americans seek to build a fort? On what hill was it built? How were the British received when they tried to take the fort? What was the end of the battle? When did the Second

Continental Congress meet? Who was made commander-in-chief of the army? How were the British forced to leave Boston? What did the Americans attempt in Canada, and how did they succeed? What city was attacked by the British fleet? With what result? Describe Sergeant Jasper's brave action. What was the purpose of the colonists in the war? What new purpose came into their minds? What member of Congress first declared that the colonies ought to be free? Who wrote the Declaration of Independence? When was it adopted? What effect did it have on the people? What did it declare to lovers of liberty?

III. What did the Declaration of Independence signify to the people? Why is the 4th of July kept as a national holiday? What happened at New York? What did Washington do after the loss of New York? Describe his retreat. How did the people feel? What did Washington do on Christmas Eve, 1776? How were the British at Trenton occupied? What took place at Trenton? At Princeton? What was the effect of these victories in America and Europe? Where did the British sail to in 1777? What was the effect of the battle of the Brandywine? At what other place was there a battle? Where did Washington's army pass the winter? What condition were the men in? What other expedition did the British attempt? What was their purpose? Describe the battle of Bennington. What did General Stark say to his men? What sort of a trap did Burgoyne fall into? What was he obliged to do? Where and when did he surrender his army? What country made a treaty with America in 1778? What did the English now offer to do? How did the Americans receive their offer? What did the British army in Philadelphia do in 1778? Why? What did Washington do? What fort did Anthony Wayne attack? How did he take it? What happened in the Valley of Wyoming? What did Captain Paul Jones do? What was the name of his ship? What English frigate did he meet? Describe the sea-fight that followed. Where did the fighting take place in 1780? What did General Arnold determine to do? What fort did he get command of? What happened to Major André? Why was he hung? What Southern city did the British capture? What leaders fought them in South Carolina? What was their mode of fighting? What did the British think of it? Who took command of the Southern army in 1781? Who commanded the British army? What success did General Greene have? Where did Cornwallis go? What did Washington do? What fleet came to help him? What happened to the army of Cornwallis? When did he surrender? Was there any more fighting? When was the treaty of peace signed? What was the new nation named?

IV. What was the population of America after the Revolution? How large was the country? How thickly was it settled? What was the size of

the largest cities? Where were the settlers mostly collected? What was the condition of the interior? What was the state of the Southern population? What great hunter had gone to Kentucky? What was the character of his life there? From what countries had the people of America come? In what business were most of them engaged? What crops were raised? What did the women do? What did the farmers do at home? What was raised in the South? Where were these crops sold? Describe the shipping trade of the colonies. How many ships had New England in 1763? What were these used for? Was there much manufacturing? What things were made? What was the name of the first newspaper? How many newspapers were there in the principal cities in 1775? Tell the size of the different cities. What is said about travelling? What kind of a city was New York? What was Philadelphia like? What was the condition of the people? What bad habit had they? What was the extent of the United States? What were its boundaries? How many States were there? Were they closely united? Did Congress then have much power?

PART V.

THE FIRST HALF-CENTURY OF THE REPUBLIC.

I.—THE MAKING OF THE GOVERNMENT.

After the War.—At the end of the Revolution the people of America were in a condition of poverty and misery. Business was at a stand-still, there was very little money, and not much of anything else useful. The country owed a great debt and had little to pay it with. The paper money with which the soldiers had been paid had lost its value, and nobody would take it for goods. The people were very poor, with their farms ruined and many of their towns destroyed. Some of them were so desperate that they declared they would pay no debts or taxes. Two thousand such men in Massachusetts, led by a man named Daniel Shays, marched out with their arms and defied the government. The State had some trouble to make them submit.

Yet this distress could not long continue. The country only needed a little time to be all right again. It still had its soil, its mines, its ships, and its industrious inhabitants, and these were enough to make any country rich. England could no longer tell the people where they should trade or what they should make, or force them to pay taxes to support her government. They were free now to work for and to govern themselves, and that was worth all it had cost.

The Patriotism of Washington.—Washington was looked upon by every one as the great man of the country. The

soldiers almost worshipped him. He could not go anywhere without crowds gathering to see him. He might have made himself a king if he had done what some of his friends wished. But he was too great a lover of his country for that, and would not take from America the liberty which he had done so much to gain. He went back to his home at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, and became a simple farmer again. This was a noble act. Few men in Washington's position would have given up the power which was in his hands. All the world has praised him since as one of the greatest of patriots.



WASHINGTON.

The Constitutional Convention. —

There was one work of great importance to be done before the country could prosper. Congress had hardly any power. It was made up of delegates from the States, but these States kept most of the power in their own hands. Congress could pass laws, but the States need not obey them unless they chose. Each State soon began to act as if it was an independent nation. Money was asked for by Congress to pay the interest on the debt, but very little of it was given, and hardly anything was done for the support of the government. A change of some kind had to be made, or the Union of the States would be broken, and there would be thirteen nations instead of one. This was seen by all the wise men of the country,—by Washington, Hamilton, Franklin, and others,—and steps were taken for a convention of delegates, which met at Philadelphia, in May, 1787, to try and form a stronger government.

Among these delegates were many learned and able men. For four months they talked over the condition of the

country, and considered what had best be done, and at the end of that time they had formed a plan of government very well suited to the needs of the country. This plan is what we have in the Constitution of the United States, that great document which forms the foundation of our government, and which has done much to make the United States so great and strong a nation.

The New Government.—When the Convention had finished its work, what had it done? Let us see. There were still thirteen States, each of which had the right to take care of its own affairs; but they were all combined under one general government, which had much power given to it. This government had the right to form and control an army and navy, to make treaties with other nations, and to declare war if necessary. It was to coin the money of the country, to manage the post-offices, to lay taxes on the people, to regulate commerce with foreign countries, and to make laws for the good of the whole nation. No State had any longer the power to do these things for itself, though each could make laws which did not interfere with the rights of any other State or of the government of the United States.



CARPENTERS' HALL, PHILADELPHIA, WHERE
THE FIRST COLONIAL CONGRESS MET.

The government was to consist of three bodies: one to make the laws, one to decide if they agreed with the Constitution, and one to see that they were put into effect. The first of these—the law-making body—is called the Congress

of the United States. It is divided into two parts,—the House of Representatives, whose members are elected by the people, and the Senate, whose members are elected by the State governments. The first of these is expected to look after the good of the whole people; the second, to attend to the interests of the States. But the interests of the people and of the States are very much the same, and there is little difference between the duties of the Senate and those of the House of Representatives.

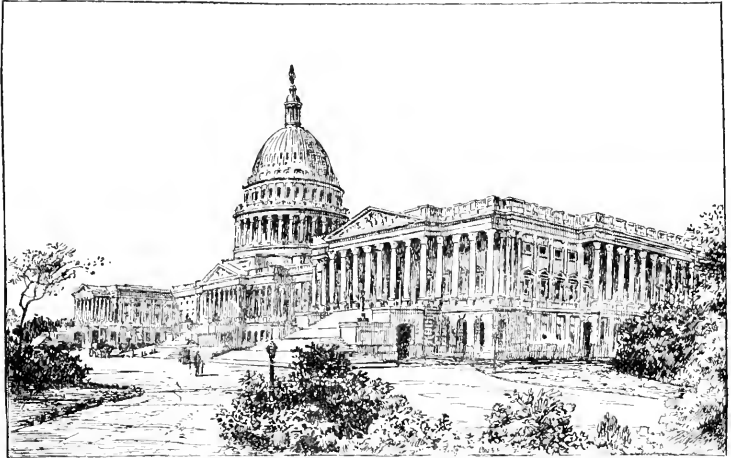
The second body of the government is called the Supreme Court. It is made up of a number of learned judges, whose duty it is to examine, if necessary, all the laws passed in the country, and decide if they agree with the Constitution. If they do not agree they cease to be laws. Every law, either of Congress or of the States, must agree with the Constitution of the United States.

The third body of the government consists of a President, with a Vice-President to take his place if he should die, and certain officers known as cabinet officers, with whom he can consult. It is the duty of the President to execute, or put into force, the laws passed by Congress. If he does not approve of these acts of Congress he can veto them, or refuse to sign them. They cannot become laws if he does not sign them, unless two-thirds of the members of Congress vote for them again. The President takes the place of the kings and emperors of foreign countries, but he has less power than some of them. He can only carry out the laws. He has nothing to do with making them, except that he need not sign any law which he does not like.

Washington as President.—As soon as the Constitution was formed and adopted by the States a President had to be chosen. Washington was the only man thought of for this high office. He became President in 1789. It was decided

that New York should be the seat of government, and Congress was asked to meet there on the 4th of March of that year.

There was much to be done. There was a heavy debt to be paid, many laws to be passed, courts to be set up, taxes to be laid, and the people had to gain confidence in the government before business could go on properly. All this was



THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

done, everybody went to work, and it was not long before America was richer and happier than it had ever been before. There were troubles, it is true. A tax had been laid on whiskey, and a mob in Western Pennsylvania refused to pay it. But Washington called out an army, and taught these people that the government intended to carry out its laws. There were difficulties also with England, Spain, and France, but they were all settled without going to war.

Washington was President for eight years. The seat of government was removed from New York to Philadelphia

in 1790, and to the new city of Washington in 1800. The people of the old States were now moving rapidly to the West. They no longer felt it necessary to keep near to the sea-coast, and they drove back the Indians as they went, and settled in the country west of the mountains.

Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee soon became States. The settlers in Ohio had great trouble with the Indians, and much fighting took place; but the hostile tribes were at last defeated by General Wayne, and after that they continued peaceful for many years.

Adams and Jefferson.—In 1797, John Adams was made President. At that time the people had become divided into two political parties, called Republicans and Federalists. Thomas Jefferson, the writer of the Declaration of Independence, was the leader of the Republicans, or the Democrats as they were afterwards called, and was elected President in 1801. He held the office for eight years. The principal difference between these parties was that the Federalists wanted a strong central government and the Republicans were afraid that too much power would be taken from the States.

Louisiana purchased.—After 1800 the country became very prosperous. Commerce grew quite active, and so much money came in to the government that the debt was rapidly being paid. Up to this time the United States only extended as far as the Mississippi River. The great country west of that river belonged to Spain. In 1800, Napoleon gained this immense territory from Spain for France. But he was at war with England and was afraid it would be taken from him, so he sold it to the United States in 1803 for fifteen million dollars. Since that time the United States has extended as far west as the Pacific Ocean. The land bought by Jefferson has increased wonderfully in value since then.

II.—THE SECOND WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

Interference with American Commerce.—America had many vessels on the ocean, and certain nations of Europe thought they could interfere with these as much as they pleased. France and England were at war, and both of them meddled with American commerce, which had become very great on account of the wars in Europe. In fact, the country came very near going to war with France. An army was raised and vessels were sent to sea, where some fighting took place with French ships of war. But the matter was settled and the two countries became friends again.

War with Tripoli.—The next difficulty was with Tripoli, a country in the north of Africa. The people of this country were not civilized, and many of them were pirates, who spent their time in capturing the vessels of other nations. Merchant ships and their cargoes were taken by the pirates and all on board were sold as slaves. Some of the nations of Europe paid these pirates to let their ships alone. The United States did so too for a while, but when Jefferson became President he decided that this payment must stop. So a fleet of war vessels was sent out to punish the pirates.

One of these war ships, the *Philadelphia*, ran aground and was seized by the Tripolitans. A brave young officer, Lieutenant Decatur, determined that they should not keep her; so he sailed into the harbor in a little vessel with some American sailors, most of whom were hidden from sight. The people on the frigate thought it was one of their own vessels, till it ran against the *Philadelphia*, when the sailors sprang on board, attacked the pirates, drove them into the sea, and set the frigate on fire, as there was no time to get her under sail. Then the gallant Decatur sailed away without heed to the cannon-balls which all the forts were

firing at him. After four years of war the ruler of Tripoli was glad to agree to let the merchant vessels of the United States alone.

The Difficulty with England.—But England would not let them alone. That country was still at war with France, and wanted all the men she could get for her army and navy. So she claimed the right to stop any American vessel at sea and take from it every man who had been born in England. And in doing this a good many were taken who had not been born in England, but were true Americans.

This was not all. England said that the ships of no foreign nation should trade with France, and France said the same for England. The United States had a large trade with both countries, for it carried goods for both while they were at war. Many American vessels were taken, and this country was almost as bad off as if it had been at war itself, while its commerce was nearly ruined.

To put a stop to this state of affairs Congress passed what was called the Embargo Act, which forbade any American ships to leave port with goods for foreign countries. It was thought that this would so injure France and England, who needed American goods, that they would consent to let our vessels alone. It did injure them, but it injured the United States still more. No ocean business at all was now done. The people of the country at length became so dissatisfied and angry that war was declared against England, which had continued to stop our vessels on the ocean and take men from them. British agents had also gone among the Indians of the North-west and incited them to take up arms against the Americans. An Indian war took place, in which Tecumseh, the Indian chief, was defeated by General Harrison. All this made the Americans very bitter against England, and they decided to fight again for their rights.

The Character of the War.—The war that followed was not so interesting nor so important as the war of the Revolution. There was nothing of much value gained by either party, while both of them lost much. England lost far more than she had gained by robbing our merchant vessels, and America met with some severe losses. But when a great nation like England acts like a pirate, and begins to rob the vessels of another nation of men and goods, war becomes necessary. No people of any spirit would long bear such treatment. The United States had endured it for years because it felt too poor and weak to combat with England, which was one of the richest and strongest countries of Europe. The Embargo Act and other means had been tried, and when they were found useless war was declared.

The Seat of War.—James Madison was now President. He had taken his seat in 1809 and remained President for eight years. The war began in 1812 and lasted to the end of 1814. It was fought in America and on the ocean. The United States did not send any soldiers to England. It had no ships and no trained troops for this purpose. But an effort was made to take Canada from England, and the greater part of the war took place along the line between the United States and Canada.

The Strength of the two Nations.—The United States was much stronger than it had been at the time of the Revolution. There were now more than seven millions of people in the country; but there were no trained soldiers and few able officers, while England had a large army and many generals of experience. England was also much stronger on the ocean. She had a thousand ships of war, while America had not more than a dozen, none of them very large. Yet all through the war America gained victories on the water, while many battles were lost on the land.

Perry's Victory.—For over a year armies were sent into Canada, but nothing was gained, while the British got possession of Michigan, and Ohio was in danger. There was a British fleet on Lake Erie, and it was feared that they would use it to land soldiers on the American shores of that lake. An active young officer, Captain Oliver Perry, was sent to Lake Erie to see what could be done to prevent this. He at once went to work to cut down trees, hew them into shape, and build ships. In a very short time he had a fleet of small vessels, and sailed out to meet the British ships.

The two fleets met on the 10th of September, 1813. A fierce battle followed, in which both sides fought with great courage, but the British were beaten and forced to surrender. During the fight the ship which Captain Perry commanded was shot so full of holes that it was ready to sink. So the gallant young officer took his flag and rowed in an open boat to another ship. The British vessels fired at him as he went, but he escaped unharmed. After the victory he sent to General Harrison this brief despatch: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

American Victories.—As soon as General Harrison received this despatch he marched on the enemy, and came up with them on the River Thames, in Canada. Here the British were defeated and most of them taken prisoners, while Tecumseh, the celebrated Indian chief, was killed. This victory drove the British out of Michigan. The next year General Winfield Scott won two victories in Canada, and in the same year there was a naval battle on Lake Champlain, where the English had a strong fleet. Commodore McDonough commanded the American fleet and gained a complete victory. After that the British made no effort to invade the United States from Canada.

The Work of the Navy.—On the ocean the Americans

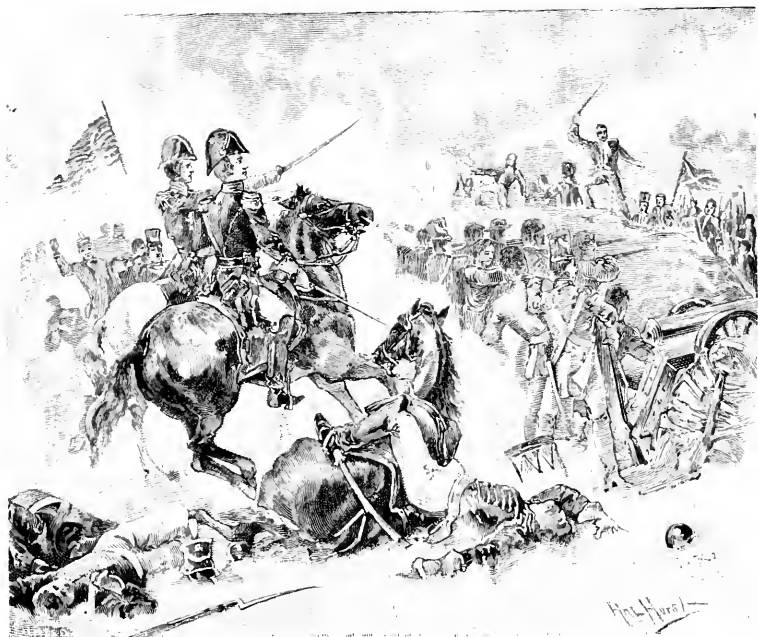
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were victorious in nearly every engagement. The first battle was between the American ship *Constitution* and the British ship *Guerrière*. They fought for two hours, at the end of which time the *Guerrière* was so full of cannon-ball holes that she was sinking and had to surrender. This victory made a great sensation in Europe and America. The British had long been masters of the ocean, and it was thought their ships could not be beaten. Before the end of the war American ships had gained many more brilliant victories over the war vessels of Great Britain. They had shown to the world that England was no longer "mistress of the seas."

The Burning of Washington.—In 1814 the British army did a disgraceful deed. There was a fleet which had done much damage along the coast, and this sailed up Chesapeake Bay and landed an army which marched on Washington. The city was very poorly defended, and the British took possession of it. They burned the Capitol and other public buildings, and many private houses, and then marched out again. This has always been looked on as a shameful act. The same fleet made an attack on Baltimore, but was driven off.

The Battle of New Orleans.—The success of the British at Washington was followed by a defeat at New Orleans. A strong force was landed and marched on this city, which there was no American army to defend. But there was a brave and skilful officer, General Andrew Jackson, and he soon raised himself an army. He had been fighting with the Creek Indians in Alabama, who had made war on the whites. These savages he completely defeated. When he saw what the British intended he collected all the men he could. Most of them had never seen a battle, but they all knew how to use a rifle, and many of them were old hunters and skilful marksmen.

Both armies built breastworks. Those of the British were made of sugar hogsheads, and those of the Americans of cotton bales. But these were soon battered down and set on fire by the cannon-shot, and then Jackson built earth-works out of the black mud of the river bank. For some



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

time they fought at a distance with cannon, and then the British determined to take the American works by storm.

They had a large army of veteran soldiers, while the Americans were militia: but these backwoods riflemen wasted no bullets. Every time that a rifle was fired an enemy fell: and they were well protected by their mud walls. On the 8th of January, 1815, the British advanced

to the attack. They came on boldly, but could not stand the terrible fire of the American riflemen and soon fell back. Again they advanced, and once more they fell dead by hundreds. This was enough. The battle had lasted only half an hour before the British army was in full retreat, having lost its commander, General Pakenham, and more than two thousand men, while only eight of the Americans were killed.

The Treaty of Peace.—The war was at an end before this battle was fought, though the armies at New Orleans did not know it. A treaty of peace had been signed; but those were not the days of railroads and telegraphs, and it took as many weeks then as it does seconds now to get news from New York to New Orleans. So those two thousand men lost their lives for nothing.

The Necessity for Peace.—The war did not end any too soon. There was nothing to fight for any longer, and America was suffering greatly. England had ended the war which had been kept up for many years with France, and wanted no more sailors or goods from American ships. There was an immense army, a great fleet, and abundance of money to use against America. America was poor and in debt. Her trade was gone, and heavy taxes were laid on the people. Some of the States refused to supply any more men and money for a war which there was no longer any use for. So a treaty of peace was made with the English government.

Industry re-established.—When the news of the treaty reached America the whole country was glad. "Peace! peace!" was the shout in the streets. Some of the cities were illuminated. At once business started up. Before night of that day shipwrights were at work on the merchant ships, making them ready for sea. Sailors were engaged,

cargoes loaded, and very soon American sails were spread again upon the seas, while at home the joyful soldiers dropped the sword and the musket and seized the plough-handle and the hammer, and the cheerful sounds of industry were heard once more throughout the land.

III.—AFTER THE WAR.

The Barbary States.—After the war affairs in America went on very quietly for many years. There was some more trouble with the pirates of Northern Africa, who again interfered with American commerce. But Commodore Decatur, the brave sailor who had burnt the *Philadelphia*, went out with a fleet and very soon frightened the piratical states. These were the countries of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, known as the Barbary States. They have never interfered with American vessels since that time.

Business Activity.—Business grew active again as soon as the war was at an end. The farmers sold their crops for good prices, the ships found plenty to do, and every one was busy except mechanics. During the war many factories had been built in America, but after the treaty of peace English goods were sent to this country in great quantities, and sold so low that the American factories had to sell at a loss or else stop working. This set people to talking about a tariff, or a tax on foreign goods, so that they could not be sold lower than American goods.

The Era of Good Feeling.—After the war the political disputes in America died away, and soon there was but one political party. People no longer voted for the old Federal party, and only the Republican party was left. This party was now generally called the Democratic. The period that followed has been called “the era of good feeling,” because

there was but the one party, and all the people thought very much the same way in politics. James Monroe was elected President in 1816, and held the office for the eight years from 1817 to 1825.

War with Florida.—While Monroe was President there were some troubles with the Indians of Florida, and these led to very important results. Florida still belonged to Spain, and the Spaniards stirred up the Seminole Indians to make war on Georgia and Alabama. General Jackson then commanded the army in the South. He was of a hasty temper, and he quickly marched his men into Florida and took possession of the Spanish town of Pensacola. He also hung two Englishmen who he said led the Indians. Jackson was blamed for this, but Spain saw that she could not keep Florida, so she asked the United States to buy it. The price asked for it was five million dollars. The United States was glad to pay this sum, and became owner of Florida in 1821.



ANDREW JACKSON.

New States admitted.—The country along the Mississippi was now filling up with people, and seven new States were formed between 1812 and 1821. These were Louisiana, Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri. Ohio had become a State in 1802. These, with the thirteen original States, and Vermont, Tennessee, and Kentucky, which had been admitted before 1800, made the total number twenty-four.

There was a dispute in Congress when Missouri asked to be made a State. This dispute was on the question of slavery. As this was to become a very important question in later years we must say something about it here. In the

early days of America there were slaves in all the colonies; but in 1820 very few slaves were left in the States north of Virginia. They were still kept in the South on account of their use in the cotton, rice, and tobacco plantations; but a law was passed in 1787 that there should be no slaves in the territory north of the Ohio.

The Missouri Compromise.—When Missouri asked to be made a State there were many slaves there already, and a debate arose whether it should be a slave or a free State. This was settled by what is called “The Missouri Compromise.” A law was passed which said that Missouri might come into the Union as a slave State, but that there should be no more slave States in the Western country farther north than the southern boundary of Missouri. This settled all trouble about slave States for twenty-five years.

Internal Improvements.—As the country was filling up so fast with people, something had to be done to make it easier to travel and carry goods from one place to another. There were steamboats on the rivers, but there were no railroads, and the carriage roads were very bad. So Congress began to make good roads in different directions. Canals were also made to carry goods cheaply. The greatest of these was the Erie Canal, of New York. This was begun in 1817 and finished in 1825. It runs across the State from Albany to Buffalo, and is of great use in bringing goods and grain from the West to the Hudson River.

The Tariff Question.—One more great question arose in Congress during this time. This was about a tariff on foreign goods. Americans were trying to start factories and workshops, and to make articles for their own use; but they had to pay high wages to mechanics, and found that they could not sell as low as the English. Therefore the manufacturers of the North asked Congress to lay a tax or

duty on foreign goods, so that they could not be sold lower than the American. The South did not want this. They did not manufacture much, and thought it would be better for them to exchange their cotton for the cheap goods of England, rather than for the high-priced goods of the North.

Thus there were two sides to the question, but the tariff party was the stronger, and passed a law in 1816 laying a tax or duty on manufactured foreign goods, to protect the American manufacturers. It proved very useful, and the workshops of America quickly became busy, and have continued so from that time to the present. But the question of the tariff has never been settled to please all parties, and it is the greatest political question of the present day.

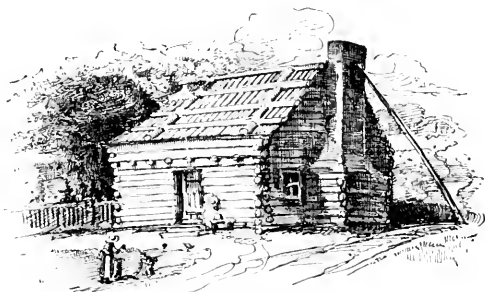
Whigs and Democrats.—In 1824, John Quincy Adams was elected President by the party which was then known by the two names of Republican and Democratic. There was no other party at that time. The Republican party of to-day was formed long afterwards. But while Adams was President the one party became divided into two, which were afterwards known as the Democratic and the Whig parties. It was the tariff and some other questions that divided the old party. The Whigs were in favor of high tariff and the Democrats of low tariff; the Whigs being strongest in the North, where there were most factories, and the Democrats in the South, where low-priced goods were wanted.

IV.—THE PROGRESS OF THE COUNTRY.

We have now told the story of what took place in the political world of America during the fifty years from 1780 to 1830. But many other things were being done during that period. The people were growing more numerous; they were gaining new ideas and customs; new ways

of doing things were coming into use ; and much was being done that does not belong to political history, but which, for all that, is of great importance. It is now our purpose to tell something about life and industry in America during these fifty years.

Growth of Population.—The first census of the United States was taken in 1790 ; that is to say, the number of people were counted, and it was found that there were nearly four millions of inhabitants. In 1830 there were nearly thirteen millions,—more than three times as many. This great increase of people had done much to fill up the new



THE HOME OF THE PIONEER.

States in the West. In 1780 the great West was still a wilderness. Daniel Boone had led some settlers into Kentucky and others had gone to Tennessee, but elsewhere the people had not moved far back from the ocean. There were great hardships to be borne by those who went West, and much danger from the Indians, and those who loved comfort and safety kept in the old settlements along the coast.

The Pioneers of the North.—But there were many who loved adventure more than they did peace and comfort, and hundreds of these went out as pioneers into the wilderness. In the region of New England and New York these trav-

elled with emigrant wagons, making roads through the woods as they went. They would clear off the trees and cultivate a piece of land for a year or two, and then, as others settled near them, they would set out again for a new home in the wilderness. It was like a great army slowly marching forward and sending pioneers in advance, while the main body held on to every foot of land that was occupied. The Indians retreated step by step before them. They could not repel this army of emigrants.

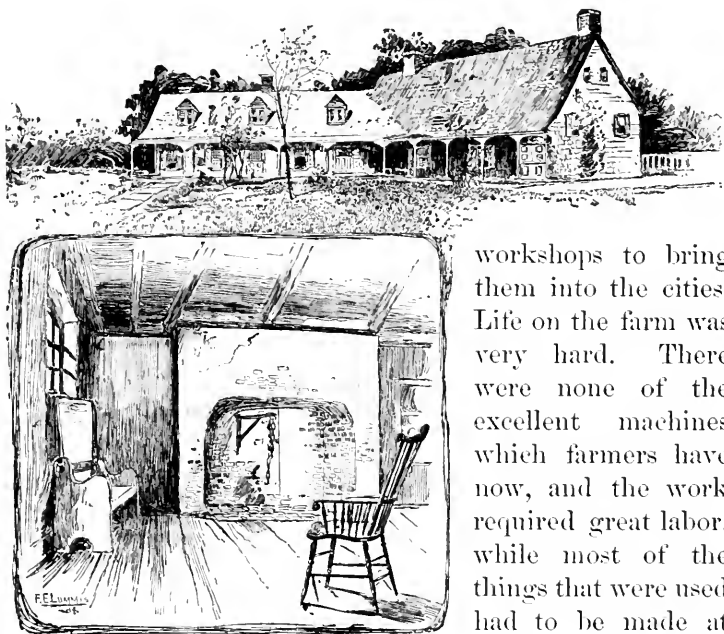
Emigration along the Ohio.—Along the Ohio the emigrants went in a different way. They loaded their goods and families on boats and floated down the river till they found a good place to settle. It was a dangerous journey. The Indians would fire on them from the woods on the river banks, and many were killed or captured. Afterwards the boats were made stronger so that bullets would not pass through them, and in some cases they carried small cannon to drive off the foe. But for many years the journey down the Ohio was a dangerous one.

But no dangers could keep back the people, and they made many settlements along the Ohio River. The first houses were built at Cincinnati in 1788, a little more than one hundred years ago. The Indians fought with the settlers, but they were driven back, and soon there were great numbers of people along the Ohio and Mississippi, and States began to be formed where not many years before all had been a wilderness, the home of the red man and of wild beasts.

How People lived.—In those days things were very different from what they are now, even in the largest cities. The streets were dirty and poorly paved, while at night they were lighted only by a few oil lamps. There were no gas and no matches such as we have now, but a piece of flint

and steel and some tinder were used to make a light. Water had to be carried from the pump, and wood was used for fires, so that houses were not warmed all through as they now are.

Most of the people lived on farms, for there were fewer



OLD FARM-HOUSE AND INTERIOR.

workshops to bring them into the cities. Life on the farm was very hard. There were none of the excellent machines which farmers have now, and the work required great labor, while most of the things that were used had to be made at home. There were very few amusements

in the country, and hardly any books and newspapers, and little time for anything except hard work.

In the houses there were still great open fireplaces, where logs of wood were burned. Tallow candles were used to light the rooms, while most of the people wore clothes of homespun,—that is, of cloth made at home of thread spun

on the spinning-wheel and woven on the hand-loom. Hunting and fishing were the principal amusements of the men, and the gun and the fishing-rod could be seen in every house.

Customs of the Rich.—But the rich people in the cities lived much better than the farmers and made a great deal more show. This class of people dressed more splendidly than they do now. The gentlemen wore white satin vests and white silk stockings, with velvet or broadcloth coats; while the ladies wore beautiful silks and satins, and had their hair dressed with powder and pomatum and raised like a tower above the head. All gentlemen took snuff, and to offer the snuff-box was considered a necessary act of politeness.

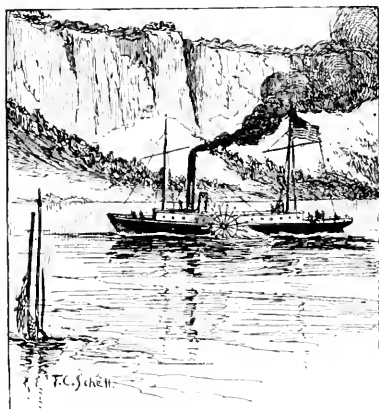
Fine balls were given at which there was much formality, and also musical concerts, but the theatre had made no great progress. There were much pomp and show at President Washington's receptions: the kings of Europe made little more display. But this came to an end after Jefferson became President. He dressed plainly and did away with all ceremony.

The Cotton-Gin.—There was one thing that happened at this time of which we must speak. Among the plants which had been early planted in the Southern colonies was the cotton-plant. This plant has its seeds covered with a fine white down, or fibre, which can be spun into thread and made into cloth. Cotton grew in other parts of the world and was used for this purpose. The people of the South raised some of it, but it took so much time and trouble to get the seeds out of the cotton that they could not make it pay.

In 1792 a young man from Massachusetts, named Eli Whitney, went to Georgia to teach while he studied law.

One day he was asked if he could not make a machine that would separate the seed from the fibre. He began to experiment, and soon invented a machine which did this work very well. It was called the cotton-gin. It worked so well that it was soon in use wherever the plant was raised, and before many years the cultivation of cotton became a great industry. American cotton was used in all parts of the civilized world, and the South grew very rich from the vast quantities of this useful product that were raised and sold.

The Steamboat invented.—Other inventions were made, one of the most important being the steamboat. Several persons tried this. There

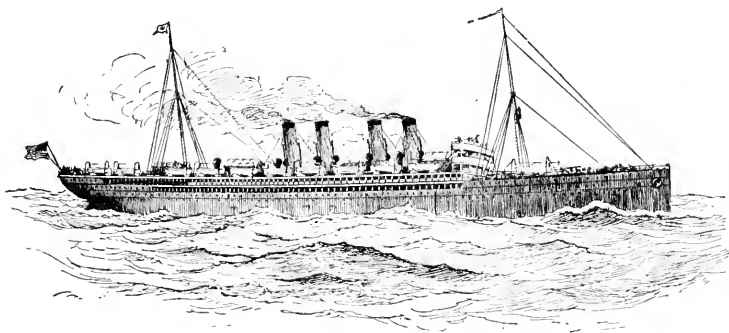


FULTON'S STEAMBOAT. (THE CLERMONT.)

was one built by James Rumsey in 1784, and another afterwards by John Fitch, which ran for some time on the Delaware. But the first successful steamboat was built by Robert Fulton in 1807. This was tried on the Hudson, and when people saw it moving at five miles an hour against wind and tide they knew that a great invention had been made. As it went up

the river to Albany the sailors on other vessels were scared to see this monster sending clouds of smoke and showers of sparks into the air, and making a great noise with its paddles and machinery. Some of them hid below the deck, and others fell on their knees and prayed for safety. But before long steamboats were running on all the rivers and proved of the greatest use.

Before the time of steamboats it was not easy to travel on the Western rivers. Boats would float down them all the way to New Orleans, but it was hard work to row them back against the strong current. So they were broken up and sold for lumber, and the sailors walked or rode back along the river bank. But after steamboats were put on



A MODERN STEAMSHIP.

the rivers there was no trouble in moving up as well as down. In 1819 the first steamship crossed the Atlantic. It was named the *Savannah*.

The Railroad introduced.—There was another great invention soon to come into use. This was the railroad. The first railroad in America is said to have been one built in 1827 at Quincy, Massachusetts. It was only three miles long, and the cars were drawn by horses, and carried stone from the quarries to the wharves. But about this time the locomotive was invented in England by George Stephenson. In 1828 the locomotive was tried in America. Farmers did not like it at first. They thought it would scare their animals, and that the wool of the sheep would be made black by the smoke, so that it could not be sold. But none

of these things happened, and soon railroads were being built in various directions. Nothing else has done so much to make a great country of America.

La Fayette visits America.—In 1824, La Fayette came to America. He was a French nobleman who had fought for the Americans during the Revolution, and was much liked by General Washington. He was now sixty-eight years old. He found a wonderful change in the country. When he had been here before there was only a thin line of settlements along the Atlantic coast. Now he would have had to travel a thousand miles from the ocean to visit all the States. He was received with joyful greetings by all the people, and wherever he went there were parades and processions. When he was ready to go home he was sent in a war vessel named the *Brandywine*, and with a present of two hundred thousand dollars in money. There was also given him a township of the public lands.

A Period of Prosperity.—After the war with Great Britain the country found itself in a state of great poverty and with a heavy debt to pay. But for a while business was so good that there was soon more riches in the country than there had been before. Tobacco and cotton sold at high prices; the ships had plenty to do, and soon gold watches began to take the place of silver, silk goods took the place of cotton, better furniture was seen in the houses, and people lived in more comfort than of old. Up to this time only wood, or soft coal, had been burned. The hard coal, or anthracite coal, of Pennsylvania was discovered in 1791, but it was long before people learned how to burn it, and it was not generally used before 1830. Since then it has made our houses much more comfortable. Gas was first used for lighting in 1822, and soon became common. It proved a very useful invention.

The First Panic.—The prosperous times of which we have spoken did not last. A few years after the war business fell into a very bad state. The banks refused to pay out any money, no gold or silver was to be had, and hundreds of persons became poor. It was the first business panic of the country, and for several years the people were in great distress. After that time business grew better and things went on again as before.

PART V.—QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

I. What was the condition of the people after the Revolution? What was done in Massachusetts? In what way were the people well off? What was thought of Washington? What did he do? Did Congress have much power? Why not? What needed to be done? When and where did the Constitutional Convention meet? What great document did it prepare? What were to be the powers of the new government? Of what three bodies was it composed? Of what two bodies is Congress made up? What are the duties of these? What is the duty of the Supreme Court? What is the duty of the President? What power has he? Who was the first President, and when elected? What city was made the seat of government? What troubles took place in Western Pennsylvania? To what place was the seat of government removed in 1790? Where in 1800? What three States were formed about this time? What took place in Ohio? Who was the second President? Who the third? What two parties were there? What was the difference between them? What great purchase was made in 1803? How far did the United States extend before that time? How far after?

II. How did France and England deal with American commerce? What difficulty arose with France? What was the character of the people of Tripoli? How did they act towards American commerce? What did President Jefferson do? Describe the fate of the frigate *Philadelphia*. How did the trouble end? What claim was made by England? How did the French and English war affect American trade? What act was passed by Congress? What was its purpose? What country did it hurt most? What took place among the Western Indians? In what did the dispute end? Who was President during the war? When did it begin and how long did it last? Where did the principal fighting take place? What was the population of the country at this time? How did the American preparation for war com-

pare with that of England? What American officer was sent to Lake Erie? What did he do? What was the result of the battle of Lake Erie? What other victories did the Americans win? Between what ships was the first naval battle? What success had the Americans on the ocean? What city did the British attack in 1814? What did they do there? What other city did they attack? Who commanded the Americans at New Orleans? What kind of soldiers had he? What was the result of the British attack? Why was it important to end the war? What effect had the treaty of peace on the people?

III. What took place in Northern Africa? What effect did peace have on business? How did it affect manufactures? What did this set people to talking about? What happened to the political parties? Why was this period called "the era of good feeling"? Who became President in 1817? What war took place during his Presidency? What was the result of the war? How many States were there in 1821? What dispute arose when Missouri asked to be made a State? Why were slaves kept in the South after they were set free in the North? What was the "Missouri Compromise"? What did Congress do to make travelling easier? What great work of public improvement was done in New York? What important question now arose in Congress? Why was a tariff wanted? Why did not the South want it? What effect did the tariff have? Who was elected President in 1824? What new parties arose while he was President? What questions divided the people? What did the Whigs want, and where were they strongest? What the Democrats, and where were they strongest?

IV. When was the first census of the United States taken? What was the population? What increase had taken place by 1830? What was the condition of the Western country in 1780? How was emigration westward conducted in New York and New England? How along the Ohio? When were the first houses built in Cincinnati? What was the condition of the cities in those days? How were they lighted? How did people strike a light? How were houses warmed? Where did most of the people live? What was the character of farm-life? What kind of clothes were worn? What amusements did the people have? How did the rich people in the cities dress? What was considered an act of politeness? What were President Washington's receptions like? What President did away with ceremony? What was the most important Southern plant? Why so? What trouble was had with it? Who invented the "cotton-gin"? For what purpose? What effect did it have on the South? Who invented the first useful steamboat? How fast did it go? How were sailors affected on seeing it? How did people travel on the Western rivers before steamboats were used? When did the first steamship cross the Atlantic? What was its name?

When and where was the first railroad built in America? How were the cars drawn? Who invented the locomotive? When was it first tried in America? What did the farmers think it would do? Were they correct? Who was La Fayette? When did he visit America? What changes did he find? How was he received? How was business after the war with Great Britain? What improvements did the people make? When was anthracite coal first discovered in Pennsylvania? When did it come into general use? When was gas first used for lighting? When did the first business panic take place? What effect did it have?

PART VI.

TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS.

I.—THE TARIFF TROUBLES AND THE PANIC.

Andrew Jackson as President.—General Andrew Jackson became President in 1829. He was a very popular man, for the people did not forget how well he had fought at New Orleans; so he was President for eight years, from 1829 to 1837. Yet he was a man without education, and was rough in his manners and obstinate in his opinions. What he thought it right to do he did, without asking anybody or caring for anybody's opinion. But men who act in that way are apt to make mischief, for it takes more than one to tell what it is best to do when great questions arise.

The South Carolina Trouble.—The first difficulty that arose was about the tariff. The people of South Carolina did not like the tariff, and they passed a law saying that foreign goods should come into that State without paying duties. This was against the Constitution, which said that only Congress should pass laws of that kind. But the law-makers of South Carolina declared that if Congress interfered with what had been done the State would not remain in the Union, but would be made a separate nation.

President Jackson was a Democrat, and therefore belonged to the party that was in favor of low tariff. But it was his duty to carry out the laws, and this he determined to do. He said that South Carolina should pay the duties, and sent

war ships to Charleston to make the people obey the laws. Everybody knew that Jackson meant what he said, and that he would force the State to remain in the Union and to obey the laws made by Congress, if he had to do it with an army.

But about this time Congress passed a law to lower the tariff, a part of which was to be taken off every year for ten years. This settled the trouble. South Carolina withdrew her "Ordinance of Secession," and there was no more talk of leaving the Union.

The Bank Question.—The next great question was about the United States Bank. This bank had been started in 1816, and was to continue for twenty years. Its charter would run out in 1836, and Congress was asked for a new one. A bill was passed to give it a charter, but the President would not sign it, so it did not become a law. He also took away the government money from the bank. This proved to be a serious matter, and helped to bring the country into great troubles. When it was found that the United States Bank must stop, State banks started up all over the country, and these lent money freely to speculators. But this was only paper money, and the banks had very little gold and silver to make it good.

The Panic of 1837.—At that time there was much speculation in Western lands, and much also in foreign goods. Business was brisk, and every one thought the country was prosperous. But nearly all this business was done on the paper money of the State banks and on credit. It all ended in one of the greatest panics in business the country has ever known. The President said that gold and silver must be paid for the Western lands, and this brought on the panic. All over the States the banks stopped payment of coin, merchants were ruined, factories closed, and business came nearly to an end. There were failures for millions of

dollars, and many thousands of people could get no work to do and little food to eat. This began in 1837 and continued for a year, but it was several years before the effects of it were over.

Harrison elected President.—A new President had been elected in 1836, and began his term in 1837. This was Martin Van Buren. He was a Democrat; but by the time of the next election, in 1840, the business troubles had changed the opinions of many of the people, and General Harrison, a Whig candidate, was elected President. But he lived only one month after taking his seat as President, and the Vice-President, John Tyler, took his place. Harrison was the first President to die in office.

Indian Wars.—We must now go back and tell of some Indian wars that took place while Jackson was President. As the people pushed farther into the country they met new tribes of Indians. These were often treated very unjustly by the white settlers, many of whom were rough and brutal men. The Indians took up arms to defend themselves, and then war began.

One of these wars broke out in 1832, in the North-west. It was with the Sac and Fox Indians, who were led by a chief named Black Hawk. There was some hard fighting before they were put down.

A much more serious war was with the Seminole Indians of Florida. This war began in 1835, and continued for about seven years. The Indians hid in the swamps and what are called the everglades of Florida, so that the soldiers had much trouble to find them. They would rush out and do what harm they could and then hurry back to their hiding-places. Many soldiers were killed, and it cost the United States thirty millions of dollars to put down these Indians. Finally they were forced to submit.

A large district of fertile land had been set aside and called the Indian Territory. Here the Seminoles were sent, and also the Cherokees and other Southern tribes. Several Northern tribes have been sent there since. The whites are not permitted to interfere with them, and the tribes of the Indian Territory are growing prosperous and civilized.

John Tyler as President.—After the death of General Harrison the Vice-President, John Tyler, became President, as we have said. He did not please the party that elected him, as he vetoed several bills which they wished to pass. One of these bills was to establish a national bank, like that which President Jackson had brought to an end.

The Freedom of Texas.—The most important affair which occurred while Tyler was President was the request of Texas to be made a part of the United States. Texas had been held by Spain since the time La Salle's colony was destroyed by the Spaniards. When Mexico gained its freedom from Spain, Texas became part of it. But many Americans had settled in Texas, and they did not like the way in which they were treated by the Mexican government. So they rebelled and began a war for freedom.

This war began in 1835, and in 1836 the Mexicans were defeated and forced to leave the country. Texas became independent. But after some years it asked to be made a part of the United States. The Northern people were opposed to this, for they knew that it would be a slave State ; but finally, in 1845, it was accepted as a State. This was a large addition to the United States, for Texas is an extensive country.

II.—THE WAR WITH MEXICO.

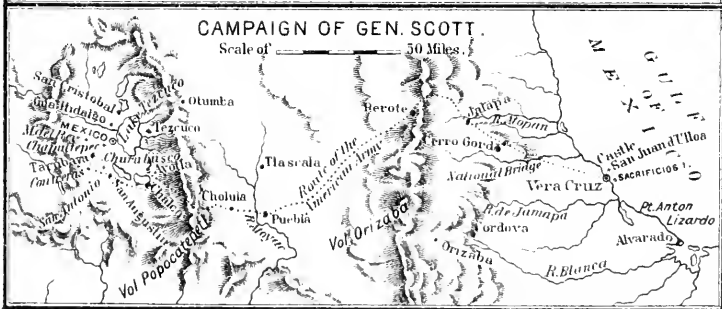
The Opening of the War.—The people of Mexico were very much dissatisfied to find that Texas had been made part of the United States. They claimed that it still belonged to

Mexico. And there was a dispute about the boundary. Mexico claimed that the boundary was the Nueces River, and Texas that it was the Rio Grande, a hundred miles farther west. Both countries sent armies into this disputed territory, and as soon as they met they began to fight. Two battles were fought. The Americans gained the victory in both, and the Mexicans had to retreat.

The Advance into Mexico.—General Taylor was in command of the American army. He now crossed the Rio Grande and took possession of Matamoras, a Mexican town. When the news of this was received there was great excitement. Many of the people did not want to go to war, but others did, and Congress voted in favor of war. Many volunteers joined General Taylor's army, and he marched into the country and captured the strong city of Monterey, where there were ten thousand Mexican troops.

The Battle of Buena Vista.—General Taylor pushed on into the mountain region. He had only five thousand men, and the Mexican general, Santa Anna, was marching against him with more than twenty thousand. They met on February 22, 1847, at a place called Buena Vista. General Taylor was in great danger, for most of his men were volunteers, while the Mexicans were trained soldiers. But he took possession of a narrow pass through the mountains. All day long the Mexicans tried to drive the American army out of this pass, but they could not do it, and at night they retreated in great haste and disorder.

The news of this victory was heard with much joy by the people of the United States. General Taylor was regarded as a great military hero, and the next year he was elected President of the United States. During the Mexican war James K. Polk was President. He had been elected by the Democratic party in 1844.



The Capture of Vera Cruz.—There was no more fighting in the north of Mexico. It had been decided to carry the war to the south, and General Scott was sent with a fleet and army to attack the city of Vera Cruz, the principal seaport of Mexico. There was a very strong fortress at Vera Cruz, but it was soon forced to surrender. The Mexicans could not stand the cannon-balls that were poured like hail-stones into their fort.

The March to the City of Mexico.—The road from Vera Cruz to the City of Mexico is over a mountainous country, and the passes in these mountains were held by the Mexicans. Their army was much stronger than that of General Scott, but he marched on and drove them back wherever he met them. When the Americans got near the city there were many battles to fight, but every one of them ended in a victory for General Scott's army.

The most important battle was at Chapultepec. This was a strong fort on the top of a very steep hill. The Americans had to climb up the hill and get into the fort by ladders, while musket- and cannon-balls came down on them like hail; but they fought their way up the hill and got into the fort, from which they drove the Mexicans.

The next day, September 14, 1847, the Americans continued to advance until they reached the City of Mexico, of which they took possession. That was the last battle of the war, and Santa Anna, the Mexican President, asked for peace.

The War elsewhere.—But this is not the whole story of the war. While the fighting we have described was taking place, an army under General Kearney had marched into New Mexico and taken possession of it. Captain John C. Fremont, with sixty men, was at this time in California. He had been sent there to explore the country, but as soon

as he heard that war was going on he got the American settlers to join him, and began to drive out the Mexican soldiers. He was helped in this by an American fleet, and soon all California was held by the United States.

New Territory acquired.—At the end of the war the American army had full possession of New Mexico and California, and when the treaty of peace was signed Mexico agreed to give up this territory, for which the United States was to pay fifteen million dollars. Thus a great district, containing more than half a million square miles, was added to the United States. This district contains the States of California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Colorado and Kansas, with the Territories of Arizona and New Mexico.

No one dreamed at that time how valuable was this new territory. Some thought that the money paid for it was more than it was worth. It was thinly settled by Mexicans, with a few American settlers. No gold had been found in it by the Mexicans, though they had been looking for gold for three hundred years. So they did not think the country of much value, and were very willing to give it up to the United States for the money paid.

The Discovery of Gold.—But it was not long before they would have given ten times as much to have it back again; for the Americans had not owned it long before gold was found. A workman who was building a mill-dam in the Sacramento River found shining yellow particles in the sand. He eagerly gathered some of this, took it to his employer, had it tested, and proved it to be gold. At once everybody quit working and went on the hunt for gold. Plenty of it was found, and when the news was heard by the people of the East they began to emigrate in great numbers to the West, every one eager to make his fortune.

There was gold in very many parts of the territory. It

was found in the sand, in the river-beds, in the rock; in dust, and in lumps. It was like a fairy tale, and thousands of people hurried to California, eager for gold. Silver mines were also discovered, and since that time an immense amount of gold and silver has been taken from that country which at first was thought of so little value. But California would be rich if it had no gold or silver. Its soil is very fertile, and every year great quantities of grain and fruits are raised. The timber on its mountains is also of great value. The Mexicans made nothing of it in three hundred years, but the Americans have made it a rich and populous State in much less than one hundred.

III.—THE WORK OF THE PEOPLE.

Increase of Territory.—In the period which we have just considered the country had made great progress. Let us stop here and take a look back at what had been done.

First, it is important to consider the size of the United States. We have told how it had gained a great territory from Mexico. But other territory had come to it of which we must now tell the story.

Lewis's and Clark's Expedition.—When France sold the country west of the Mississippi to the United States no one knew how large that country was, or what might be found in it. So two men, Captains Lewis and Clark, were sent out to see what it was like. There were thirty men with them, and they left St. Louis in 1803, and were more than two years in a wilderness where no white man had ever set foot before. They went up the Missouri River as far as they could, and then crossed the Rocky Mountains and went down the Columbia River till they reached the Pacific Ocean. They had wonderful stories to tell, when they came back, of the tribes they had seen and the adventures they had met

with. They were probably the first white men who beheld the great herds of buffalo of the Western plains. They had seen herds of them a mile wide crossing the rivers like a great army.

The Fur Trade.—These explorers found that the Indians of the Pacific coast had furs to sell, and a New York merchant, named John Jacob Astor, sent men there to trade for furs. He grew very rich in this business. His trading-post was afterwards sold to a British fur company, and this gave the British possession of the territory about the Columbia River.

This company did all it could to keep Americans out of the country. It spread a story that the mountains could not be crossed with wagons, and thus made emigrants afraid to venture. And it laid plans to bring in a large body of English settlers. This was done because the United States was then making a treaty with England about that western country, and the fur company wanted to hold on to Oregon if it could.

Dr. Whitman's Enterprise.—There was an American in Oregon named Dr. Whitman. He saw what was being done, and determined to go to Washington and try to stop the government from giving up that country to England. So he started on horseback across the mountains. The journey was a terrible one. It was the winter season, and ice and snow were everywhere. It took him three months to get to Santa Fé. When he reached Washington he found that the treaty had been signed, but that Oregon was left out of the settlement. So he told the people how valuable Oregon was, and that there were easy passes through the mountains, and he got many emigrants to go there with him. By the end of 1844 there were three thousand Americans in that region.

The Growth of the Country.—This settled the matter. That country could not be given up now. In 1846 a treaty was made with England which decided that the country which we now know as the States of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho was part of the United States.

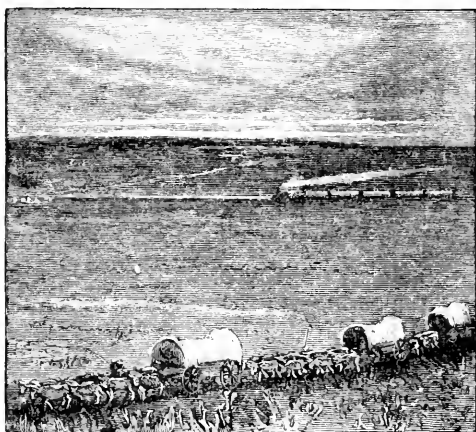
The great republic had made a wonderful growth in fifty years. In 1800 the United States was bounded on the west by the Mississippi River, and on the south by Florida. It did not reach to the Gulf of Mexico, for Florida had a strip of land fifty miles wide along the Gulf coast. By 1850 it had gained Florida and the whole vast country between the Mississippi River and the Pacific Ocean, together with Texas and the whole of Northern Mexico. In fifty years it had grown to three times its original size, and had become one of the greatest countries on the earth. We may well call this a wonderful progress.

The population was growing as fast as the country. Many steamships now crossed the ocean, and emigrants were coming in by thousands. Most of these settled in the East, but great numbers of the Eastern people went West. This was not difficult to do. Every river had its steamboats, and railroads were being built in all parts of the country, so that it was becoming an easy matter to travel long distances. New cities started up in the West. In 1830 there was only a fort at Chicago. Now it is one of the largest cities in the country. In other places where there are large cities now there was only the wilderness then.

Emigration West.—But there were no railroads or steamboats to carry emigrants across the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific coast. Those who went there had to travel in wagons drawn by oxen or horses. It was a journey of great hardships and danger. The emigrants were often attacked and murdered by the Indians. Sometimes they were

smothered in the snows, or died of starvation. The road was marked by the bones of dead animals. Yet thousands crossed that way, and the Western country rapidly filled up.

It was the desire for gold and silver that took most of these emigrants across the mountains. Others went to settle on farms or to do business in cities. But some of them went for a different purpose. These were the Mormons, a religious sect which had been started by a man named

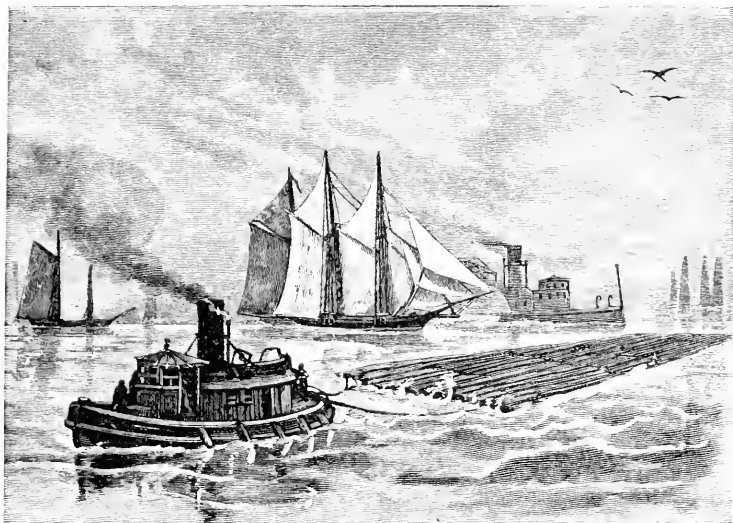


PRAIRIE LANDSCAPE.

Joseph Smith, who said he had found a book of religious teachings written on gold plates that were buried in the earth. He called this the "Book of Mormon." The Mormons first settled in the region near the Mississippi River, but the people did not like their doings and mobs drove them away. So in the end they crossed the mountains and settled in the country since known as Utah, and which was made a Territory of the United States in 1850.

Increase of Wealth.—The country was now growing very

rich and populous. In 1830 the population was about thirteen million. In 1850 it was over twenty-three million,—nearly twice as many. New farming lands were being cleared, and workshops and great factories were being built in all directions. One could hear the rattle of machinery all over the land. America no longer depended on England for goods. The greatest variety of goods was made here; but



STEAM-TUG WITH LUMBER RAFT.

much also came across the ocean, and the shops were filled with costly articles.

Among the riches of America must be named the products of the mines. Pennsylvania brought great quantities of coal and iron into the market. In New York there were mines of salt. Lead mines were worked in Illinois and Iowa, and rich copper mines in Michigan. Since that time

these substances have been found in other places, while gold and silver have been found in many parts of the Rocky Mountains. The forests of America are also of very great value, and every year immense quantities of timber are cut, to be made into ships, houses, furniture, and very many other things.

All this brought much money to the government, and in 1835 the last of the national debt was paid. The government had more money than it wanted, and gave what it did not need to the States.

Valuable Inventions. — During this period there were many inventions, some of which have proved very valuable. Among these is the electric telegraph, which is almost as important as the railroad. Samuel F. B. Morse was the American inventor of this. His first patent was taken out in 1837, but people could not be made to believe in the telegraph, and it was not tried, except for short distances, till 1844. Then a line was established from Baltimore to Washington. It proved a great success, and there are now more than one hundred and ninety thousand miles of telegraph in the United States.

Other inventions of great value were made. One of these was the reaping-machine, which has been a very great help to farmers. Another was the friction-match. It is so easy now to strike a light and make a fire that it seems strange how people ever got along without matches. Another great invention was that of vulcanized rubber. Before then india-rubber was soft and of little use; but by mixing sulphur with it it was made hard and firm, and it came into use for a great many purposes. The sewing-machine, which was invented in 1846, was quite as useful. Before that time all sewing had to be done by hand, and the labor was very great. Besides these there were hundreds of other inven-

tions, all of which have helped people to live better, and to do more work with less labor.

The Postal Service.—For a long time the government had been carrying letters for the people: but at first very few were carried, and these went very slowly. Benjamin



PROFESSOR S. F. B. MORSE, THE INVENTOR OF THE ELECTRO-MAGNETIC TELEGRAPH.

Franklin was the first Postmaster-General. The cost of the postal service then was great. But the railroads made the expense small, while the speed became much greater. Before 1850 it had cost ten cents to send a letter from Philadelphia to Boston. In 1863 the price was lowered to three cents for all parts of the country, and there was a very great

increase in the number of letters sent. In 1883 postage was reduced to two cents. There are thousands of letters sent to-day for every one that was sent a hundred years ago.

The Prisons.—In old times the prisons were very badly managed and those confined in them were treated cruelly. Most of the States whipped their prisoners and ill treated them in other ways. One State kept its criminals in an old copper mine. Men were still sent to prison for debt. All this is now done away with, and prisoners in most of the States are well treated. They are made to work, but they have clean and healthful rooms and good food.

Education.—Education had also very much improved. Public schools had been established in nearly all the States,



THE OLD EPHRATA PRESS.

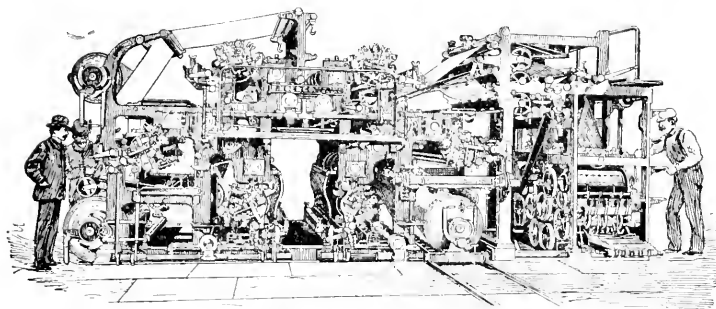
and many more of the people were educated than in the past. But the methods of teaching and the school-books used were still poor, and they have been improving ever since. In the early days of the country there had been little time for study or amusement; most of the time was taken to make a living. But now

people had more time to themselves, and more money, and they paid much more attention to public affairs and to education.

The Temperance Reform.—A great work was being done by the temperance societies. In former times nothing was thought of seeing people drunk, and even church people would drink strong liquors. Rum and whiskey were kept

in every house and offered to every visitor. But the temperance societies began to teach the people that this was wrong, and lecturers were sent to all parts of the country to talk about the need of temperance. Many people ceased drinking and many more ceased keeping liquor in their houses. It became a disgrace to be seen drunk, and it is becoming more and more a disgrace every day. Doctors showed that rum killed more people than any disease, and that a great part of the sickness, crime, and poverty of the country was caused by intemperance. This had never been shown before, and very many persons signed the pledge not to drink.

Newspapers and Books.—The temperance movement was greatly helped by other things which took the people



A MODERN PRINTING-PRESS.

away from drinking-saloons. Most of the people had learned how to read, and newspapers were now published everywhere and spread all over the country. These papers were much larger and had much more in them than those of the past, though they were not as large as those we have now.

Books were also far more plentiful and much cheaper. Those who at one time did not know how to spend their

time now had no trouble. There were many innocent amusements, and it was not necessary to go for pleasure to drinking-places or other localities where bad habits might be learned.

Many Americans were now writing books which were read all over the civilized world. At one time the English had laughed at the idea of any one reading an American book, but they now began to read works by American authors themselves. And it was admitted that America had some of the greatest statesmen of the world. Daniel Webster was one of the ablest orators that had ever lived, and there were many other men of great ability in the American Congress.

Thus it may be seen that the United States had made wonderful progress in every way. It was a very different country from what it had been at the time of the Revolution. It was then one of the small and poor countries of the world; now it had become one of the great and rich nations. But it had a terrible trial to go through yet, in which all its wealth and power were to be employed to the utmost. The story of this great trial we have next to tell.

PART VI.—QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

I. Who became President in 1829? Why was he popular? What was his character? What difficulty arose with South Carolina? What did that State do? What did Jackson do? What did Congress do to end the dispute? What other great question arose? How long did the United States Bank have to run? What did Jackson do about the bank charter bill? What effect did it have? What was the condition of business and speculation before 1837? What action did Jackson take about the Western lands? What followed? Describe the panic of 1837. Who became President in 1837? Who in 1841? What happened to him? Who succeeded him? What war took place in 1832 in the North-west? What war broke out in Florida? How long did it last? Why did it continue so long? What was

done with the Seminoles? What is the Indian Territory used for? What important affair took place while Tyler was President? How did the Texan war end? When was Texas accepted as a State of the Union?

II. What claim was made by Mexico about Texas? What boundary dispute was there? What took place in the disputed region? What did General Taylor do? Where did he meet Santa Anna's army? How did the armies compare in size? What was the result of the battle? Who was elected President in 1844? What Mexican city was attacked by General Scott? To what point did he march from Vera Cruz? What was the result of his battles with the Mexicans? Describe the battle of Chapultepec. When was the City of Mexico taken? What did Fremont do in California? What new territory did the United States acquire by the treaty of peace? What present States and Territories does it comprise? What was thought then of the value of this territory? Describe the finding of gold in California. What other precious metal was found? What other value has California? What effect did the discovery of gold have upon emigration?

III. Who were the first to explore the Western territory of the United States? What did they tell on their return? What is said of the fur trade on the Pacific? What did the British do to keep American emigrants away? What did Dr. Whitman do? How many people were in Oregon by the end of 1844? What treaty was made in 1846? What were the boundaries of the United States in 1800? What had it gained by 1850? How was emigration made easier? What was the condition of Chicago in 1830? What is it now? How did emigrants cross the Rocky Mountain region? What hardships and dangers did they encounter? Tell the story of the Mormons. What was the population in 1830? What in 1850? What was the progress in industry? What is said about the mines of America? Who invented the American electric telegraph? In what year was the first line built? How many miles of telegraph are there now in the United States? What other important inventions were made? How was india-rubber made useful? When was the sewing-machine invented? What did it cost to send letters before 1850? What after? When did the two-cent postage begin? How were the prisons managed in old times? How are they now? How were the schools then? How are they now? Was drunkenness common in old times? What did the temperance societies do? What did the doctors show about intemperance? What is now thought about it? What is said about newspapers and books? What did the English think about American books? What do they think now? Who was the greatest American orator?

PART VII.

THE ERA OF THE CIVIL WAR.

I.—THE SLAVERY CONTROVERSY.

An Important Question.—The portion of the history of our country which is now before us is a very important one. We have to tell how a serious question, which had made trouble between the North and South for years, and which Congress could not settle to please all the people, in time brought on one of the greatest wars the world has ever known. And we have also to tell how four years of hard fighting and killing of people and ruin of property became necessary to end the difficulty which could not be settled in peace. The war did much harm, but it did much good also, for it saved the country from future danger.

The question was that of slavery. We must go back and tell how it arose. As we have already said, at one time there were slaves in all the colonies. Later on they were all set free in the North. It began to look as if they would be freed in the South also, for it seemed as if they were of no great use. But when the planters began to raise cotton in large quantities the slaves became very useful to them. They thought the cotton-fields could not be worked without them. Buying and selling slaves also became an important business. On account of this the people of the South gave up all thought of doing without slaves, but looked on them as their most valuable property.

The Missouri Compromise.—When the new States west of the Mississippi began to come into the Union, the South wanted to have them made slave States and the North wanted them to be free States. This question was settled for a time, in 1820, by the “Missouri Compromise,” of which we have already told. Congress decided that Missouri should be a slave State, but that no more slave States should be made north of the latitude of its southern boundary. There was no more difficulty of this kind until 1850. But many people in the North thought that all slavery was wrong and should be done away with, and they formed societies, and helped slaves to escape from their masters. They believed they were doing a good work in this, but the Southern people declared that they were being robbed of their property, and grew very indignant.

The Fugitive Slave Law.—In 1850 there was a law passed for the return of runaway slaves to their masters. It was thought this would settle the trouble, but it only made it worse. The party opposed to slavery grew stronger, and did all it could to keep those who were claimed as slaves from being taken South.

The Kansas Trouble.—Millard Fillmore was now President. General Taylor had been made President by the Whig party in 1849, but he died the next year, and Fillmore, the Vice-President, took his place. The next election was held in 1852, and Franklin Pierce was elected by the Democrats. The trouble increased while he was President. Two new Territories were formed west of Missouri, and named Kansas and Nebraska. According to the Missouri Compromise no slaves would be allowed in these when they became States, because they lay north of the boundary settled upon in 1820. But a dispute arose as to whether they should be free or slave States, and in 1854 a bill was passed which

said that the people of these Territories should settle that question for themselves.

This law caused much angry and bitter feeling. It set aside the Missouri Compromise and opened the whole difficulty again. People began to hurry into Kansas. The South wanted to get the most men there, so that when it came to a vote they could vote for slavery. The North tried to do the same thing, so that they could vote against slavery.

Very soon these men of different opinions began to fight. Towns were burned and people were killed in Kansas. Votes were taken and both parties claimed to have won. One party tried to organize a slave State and the other a free State, and the people of the Territory for a long time were at war.

The New Parties.—While these things were going on political changes were taking place. The old Whig party ceased to exist, and there came up a new one called the Free Soil party. It was opposed to the making of any more slave States. In 1856 the Free Soil became part of a new party, the Republican. After this the people were divided into the two leading political sections which we still have, the Republican and the Democratic parties. These have several points of difference, but the principal one at that time was slavery.

In 1856, James Buchanan was elected President by the Democratic party. He had a stormy time before him, for the excitement of the people was becoming very great. The feeling against slavery was spreading in the North, while the South was bitter against those who were helping the slaves to escape.

The John Brown Raid.—This feeling was greatly increased by an event which took place in 1859. There was an old

man, named John Brown, who had been very active in Kansas, and had fought fiercely against the Southern party there. He was so bitter against slavery that he thought it was his duty to stir up the slaves to rebel against their masters and make themselves free by force.

So he led a party to Harper's Ferry, in Virginia, where there was an arsenal belonging to the government. He took possession of this. It was his purpose to get the slaves together, give them arms from the arsenal, and lead them to fight for their freedom. But no slaves came to help him, and very soon he and his party were taken prisoners by a force of United States soldiers.

John Brown was given up to the authorities of Virginia, who tried him for treason. He was found guilty and hanged.

Election of Lincoln.—This event stirred up the feelings of the people more than ever. Many who thought that John Brown was wrong felt sympathy for him, and when the time came for the next Presidential election, in 1860, the two parties were very bitter against each other, while the Republican party had grown much stronger. When the votes were counted it proved that the Republicans had elected their candidate. This was Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, who took his seat as President of the United States on the 4th of March, 1861.

When he was elected the country was at peace, and most of the people had no idea that war would follow. When he took his seat the country was on the verge of war. We have now to tell how this change came about.



LINCOLN.

II.—FROM SECESSION TO EMANCIPATION.

The State Rights Doctrine.—The election was no sooner over than trouble began. The political leaders in South Carolina had said that that State would secede if Lincoln was elected President. What did they mean by this? Let us see. The United States, as we know, is made up of a number of States which have joined together to form one country. Some people believed that each State had the right to withdraw again if it wished, and carry on its government alone. This is known as the “State Rights” doctrine. Others believed that the States had no right to withdraw, and that they had given up all such rights when they came into the Union.

This was the question that was now before the people,—whether the United States was strong enough to hold together as a single nation, or so weak that the States could leave the Union at their will. This problem was to be settled in the next four years.

Seven States secede.—As soon as it was known that Lincoln had been elected, South Carolina determined to secede. A convention of delegates met, and on December 20, 1860, it was declared to the world that this State was no longer a part of the United States, but an independent nation, that it could not be kept in the Union against its will, and that in future it intended to govern itself. Very soon afterwards all the States that border on the Gulf of Mexico did the same thing. Seven States in all declared that they were out of the Union.

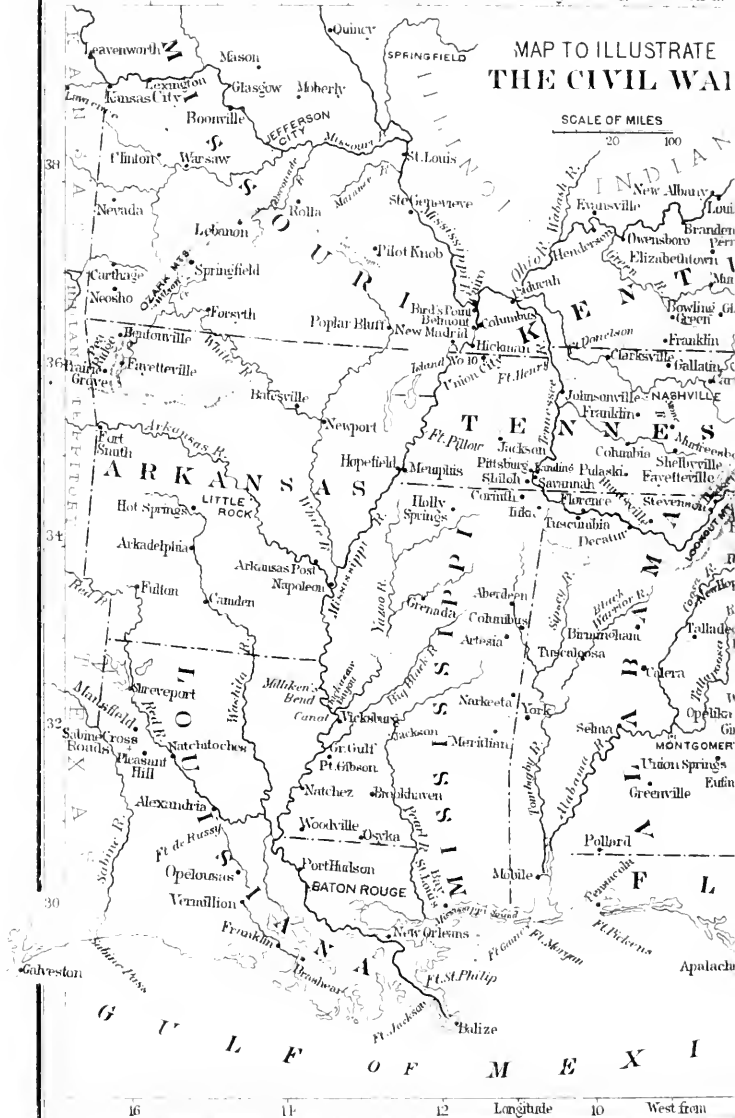
The Confederacy formed.—These States then joined together and called themselves the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis was elected President, and Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President, and Montgomery, Ala-

MAP TO ILLUSTRATE
THE CIVIL WAR

SCALE OF MILES

20

100





bama, was selected as the capital of the new Confederacy. These States seized the forts and the war material in their territory, for they expected that they would not be allowed to go in peace. But some forts were held by United States officers and soldiers who would not give them up. One of these was Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor, which was held by Major Robert Anderson.

Fort Sumter bombarded.—It was thus that matters stood when Abraham Lincoln took his seat as President, on the 4th of March, 1861. The Confederate authorities at Charleston had determined that Fort Sumter should be theirs, and had built batteries on the shores of the bay near it. On the 12th of April, 1861, they began to fire on the fort. Major Anderson fired back. This continued for two days. At the end of that time the fort was much injured, its barracks were on fire, and nearly all its powder was gone. So Major Anderson consented to give it up, as he could defend it no longer.



DAVIS.

Preparing for War.—When the news of this event spread through the country it caused great excitement. All hope of peace was gone. Everybody now saw that there must be war if the country was to be kept together. The President called for volunteers, and great numbers offered. In the South four more States seceded,—Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee. Everywhere men were gathering, drilling, and marching. It was clear that before many days they would meet in deadly conflict.

The Battle of Bull Run.—Thousands of volunteers hurried to Washington to save that city from danger. A

Southern army collected in Virginia, just south of Washington. On the 21st of July these two armies met near Bull Run, a small stream a few miles away from Washington. Here the first important battle of the war was fought. There were about thirty thousand men on each side. They were all new troops, but they fought well. For a while it looked as if the Union army would win; but just then a fresh force joined the Confederate army, and on seeing this the Union ranks broke into disorder, and the soldiers fled in a panic to Washington. The Southern army had gained the victory.

This battle had a great effect. The people of the South were full of joy. Some of them thought that this one victory would end the war; but it only made the North more determined. Congress called for half a million of men and voted to borrow five hundred million dollars. On every side volunteers flocked to the camps. Large armies were soon in the field on both sides.

The War that followed.—And now we have to tell the story of a time that was full of important events. Many great battles were fought and hundreds of small ones. It would need a large book to describe them, and then we would only be telling how thousands of men were killed and wounded, how millions of dollars' worth of property was destroyed, and how for years terror and ruin hung over the whole country. It would be of no advantage to tell all this, and we shall simply give an outline of what took place.

There was much hard fighting in 1862. Large armies had been raised and drilled, vast quantities of arms and other materials had been gathered, and everything made ready for a great war. This was the work of 1861. When 1862 opened the armies were ready for a terrible conflict.

The Contest in the West.—The fighting took place in three regions,—in the West, in Virginia, and on the ocean. In the West the United States wanted to get control of the rivers that ran south. The Confederate States tried to prevent this, and built two strong forts on the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers, in Kentucky, and also powerful works on the Mississippi. The Unionists had covered some steamboats with iron plates and sent them down these rivers as gun-boats. An army marched overland at the same time. This was commanded by General Ulysses S. Grant, who was afterwards to become so famous.



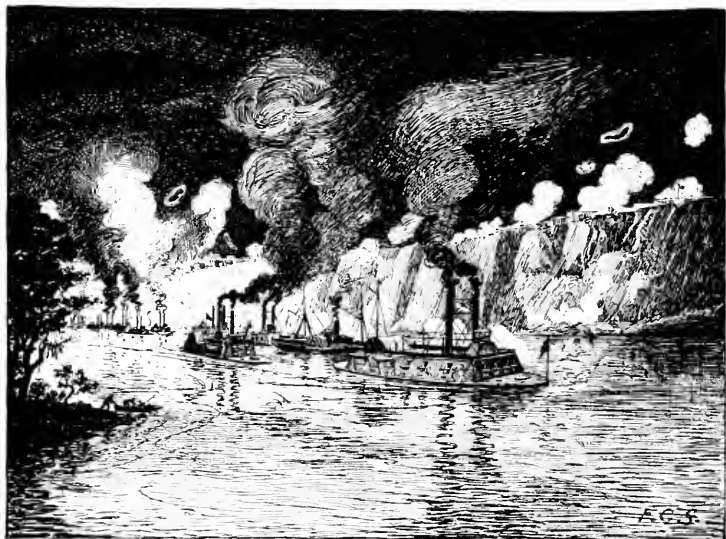
GRANT.

Battle of Pittsburg Landing.—The two forts were soon taken, with many prisoners, and the Confederate army had to retreat to Tennessee. General Grant followed, and made his camp at Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, on the Tennessee River. Here there took place one of the most desperate battles of the war. Grant's army was attacked by a strong army under General Albert Sydney Johnston. The fighting continued with great fury for two days. On the first day the Union army was driven back in much confusion and with great loss of life, but a fresh force came up, and the next day it drove back the Confederates and held the field. Both sides had fought hard and lost many men, but the battle ended in favor of the Northern army.

Murfreesborough.—Much other fighting took place in the West during the year, and a great battle was fought at Murfreesborough, in Tennessee, on the last day of 1862. The two armies fought all day, and three days later there was another battle. Then Bragg, the Confederate general, with-

drew his army and fell back to Chattanooga. The end of the year's fighting left the Union army in possession of all Kentucky and Tennessee.

On the Mississippi.—While this was going on there was a severe struggle along the Mississippi River. The Union gun-boats and armies had gone down this river and captured



THE FLEET RUNNING THE BATTERIES AT VICKSBURG.

all the forts of the Confederates, till they came to the city of Vicksburg, where very strong forts had been built.

At the same time a fleet, commanded by Admiral Farragut, had sailed to the mouth of the Mississippi. There were several forts along this part of the river, but the fleet fought its way past them and kept on until it reached the city of New Orleans, which was forced to surrender. This took place on April 25, 1862.

Vicksburg.—Then the fleet went on up the river and captured other places. It ran past the batteries at Vicksburg and joined the fleet above. Thus nearly the whole of the great river of the West was in the Union hands. But the Confederates had two strong places, Vicksburg and Port Hudson, and held control of the river between them, so that they could get supplies from Texas and the other States west of the Mississippi. It was the purpose of the Union leaders to capture these places and get control of the whole river, and thus cut the Confederacy in two.

The War in Virginia.—It will be seen that in the West the Union army had gained great successes. They held Kentucky and Tennessee and part of Mississippi, and had won nearly the whole of the Mississippi River. In Virginia, on the contrary, the Confederates had been successful, and had gained several important victories.

As soon as Virginia seceded the city of Richmond was made the capital of the Confederacy, and Jefferson Davis, the President, with the rest of the Confederate government, went there. So a great part of the war took place between the two capital cities, Washington and Richmond. Efforts were made to capture both these cities, but neither of them was taken till near the end of the war.

Siege of Richmond.—Early in 1862, General McClellan, who commanded the Union army, moved south to Yorktown, the place where the army of Cornwallis had been captured eighty years before. After some fighting he marched close to Richmond and built lines of earthworks near that city. A battle was fought at a place called Fair Oaks, where Gen-



LEE.

eral Joseph Johnston, who commanded the Confederate army, was badly wounded. General Robert E. Lee took Johnston's place as Confederate commander. This was an excellent choice for the Confederates, for General Lee proved himself to be one of the greatest soldiers of modern times.

Stonewall Jackson.—While these events were taking place, General Jackson, one of the boldest of the Confederate commanders, was winning victories in the Shenandoah Valley, which lies to the north-west of Richmond. He was usually called “Stonewall” Jackson, because he was said to have held his troops “like a stone wall” in the battle of Bull Run.

The Seven Days' Fight.—General Lee now decided to make an attack on McClellan. He sent for Stonewall Jackson to help him, and on June 26 made an assault on the Union lines. A dreadful series of battles followed. Each army had nearly one hundred thousand men, but the Union army suffered a severe defeat, and McClellan began to retreat towards the James River. Lee's army followed, and the fighting was kept up for seven days, there being a desperate battle every day. In some of these one side, in some the other, was successful, but the retreat continued till the James River was reached. Here McClellan built strong lines of earthworks and was safe from further attack. Thousands had been killed and wounded on each side, and the siege of Richmond had to be given up.

Second Battle of Bull Run.—There was another Union army now collected in Virginia, under General Pope. In August, General Lee marched suddenly to the north and made an attack on this army. The battle took place near the old battle-ground of Bull Run. It was one of terrible slaughter, and in the end the Union army was defeated and forced back towards Washington.

Antietam.—Then General Lee led his army across the Potomac into Maryland, where he hoped that many volunteers would join him. General McClellan, who had brought his army back from Richmond, followed in great haste. The two armies met on September 17, at Antietam Creek, in the west of Maryland. The battle that followed was one of the most desperate of the war. It ended in favor of the Union army. Lee crossed the Potomac again and marched back into Virginia.

Fredericksburg.—There was one more terrible battle in Virginia during the year. This was at the town of Fredericksburg. General Lee had his army on the hills back of the town. General Burnside, who now commanded the Union army, crossed the river and attacked him. The slaughter that followed was dreadful. The Union army was completely defeated, and had about twelve thousand men killed and wounded. This ended the fighting in Virginia for that year.

The Blockade Runners.—While these things were taking place there were some important operations of the fleet, of which we must now speak. Both sides had been busy building vessels of war, and a Union fleet was sent down the coast, which took possession of large districts in North and South Carolina, and others in Georgia and Florida. These were held till the end of the war; but the seaports of Charleston, Savannah, and Wilmington were kept by the Confederates. They were blockaded by the Union fleet, but in spite of the fleet a great many vessels got into them. These were called "blockade runners." They took out cotton, rice, tobacco, and other articles, and brought back things needed in the South, much of the cargo being war material.

The Work of the Merrimac.—Some of the Confederates

spent their time in covering vessels with iron plates, so that cannon-balls could not pass through their hulls. One of these was a United States war vessel, the *Merrimac*, which had been sunk in the harbor of Norfolk. This was raised and covered with plates of iron. Then it steamed out and attacked the wooden war-vessels of the fleet. These fired on it, but the heavy cannon-balls glanced off from the iron hull as if they had been hail-stones. One of the wooden vessels was sunk, and great fear was felt as to what this iron monster would do. It looked as if it might destroy the Union fleet and attack the cities of the North.

The Monitor and the Merrimac.—But the Union side had been building iron vessels too. One of these was of very strange shape. It had a flat deck that came just above the water; on this was a round tower of iron in which were two very heavy cannon. People called it a “cheese-box on a raft,” and that was what it looked like. It was sent down to Hampton Roads, and reached there the day after the fight we have just told of.

The *Merrimac* was coming out to attack the other vessels, when this strange-looking craft, which was called the *Monitor*, came gliding in. A tremendous battle followed. The two iron ships battered each other with cannon-balls for four hours. Neither hurt the other much, but the *Merrimac* got the worst of it. In the end she turned and hurried back to Norfolk. Soon afterwards the Union forces captured Norfolk, and the *Merrimac* was destroyed to prevent her falling into their possession.

This was the first fight that ever took place between two iron-clad ships. When the news got to Europe every one saw that the days of wooden war ships were over. Since that time numbers of iron-clad ships have been built, but there has been no war in which they could be fairly tried.

The Emancipation of the Slaves.—The year 1862 ended with a very important event. For a long time during the war slavery was not interfered with, and the President said that the object of the war was merely to bring back the seceded States into the Union. But in time he saw that the South was getting great help from the slaves, who were kept at work on the plantations and helped to build forts and do other such work. It would weaken the Confederates very much if the slaves were taken from them.

The President therefore announced that the slaves would be liberated on the 1st of January, 1863. On that day there was sent out what is known as the “Proclamation of Emancipation.” It declared that all slaves within the Confederacy were free and would be free forever after.

This proclamation had a great effect. From this time on the war was fought not only to bring back the seceded States, but to liberate the slaves. Many negro regiments were formed, and everything was done that could make the negroes useful to the North and deprive the South of their help. The Confederacy was very much weakened by this proclamation. As fast as the armies went south the slaves were set free, till in the end they all gained their freedom. Since the war there has not been a slave in the United States.

III.—THE FINAL YEARS OF THE WAR.

Battle of Chancellorsville.—During the year 1863 the war went on with great activity. In the East there was not as much fighting as there had been the year before, but two great battles took place. One of these was at a place called Chancellorsville, in a very rough and wild country known as the Wilderness. General Hooker now had command of the Union army. He did not think it safe to attack General Lee at Fredericksburg, as General Burnside had done; so

he led his army across the Rappahannock and Rapidan Rivers at a point above that city.

General Lee hastened in the same direction, and the two armies met in the wild country of the Wilderness. A fierce



STONEWALL JACKSON.

battle took place in a woods so thick that the armies could hardly see each other. General Stonewall Jackson led a strong force to the left through the woods, and made a sudden attack on the right wing of the Union army. It was a complete surprise and this part of the army was driven back. The battle continued all the next day, and in the end Hooker was forced to retreat and to cross the

river again. But Stonewall Jackson was killed, which was a great loss to the Confederate side.

Lee marches North.—The battle of Chancellorsville took place on the 2d and 3d of May, 1863. In the latter part of June, General Lee left Fredericksburg and marched at great speed to the north. It was thought he wished to take the city of Washington, and the Union army hastened to protect it. But Lee kept on north till he reached Maryland, and then went on into Pennsylvania.

What he intended to do no one knew. Many feared he was going to march on Philadelphia and take possession of that rich city. The Union army followed him as fast as it could. The two armies came together near the small town of Gettysburg, in Southern Pennsylvania. General Meade was now in command. He had brought the army north as fast as the soldiers could march.

The Battle of Gettysburg.—The advance ranks of the two armies came together on the 1st of July, and a severe

fight took place. The Confederates were the stronger, and the Union line fell back to the top of a long line of low hills called Cemetery Ridge, which was fortified, while the remainder of the army was hurried up. Here there was fought the greatest battle of the war. On July 2, General Lee made a desperate attack on the Union lines. Terrible



BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.

fighting took place, and many thousands were killed and wounded, but at the end of the day the Union army still held Cemetery Ridge.

The next day General Lee sent a large force against one point of the Union lines. If he had broken through at that point he would probably have gained the victory, but the charging force met with dreadful slaughter and was completely defeated. Most of those who were not killed were taken prisoners. Very few got back. That ended

the battle. General Lee led his men back to Virginia. He had suffered a great defeat. Many look on the battle of Gettysburg as the turning-point of the war.

The Siege of Vicksburg.—While this was taking place in the East the Union army was gaining a great success in the West. General Grant had made up his mind to take Vicksburg and open the Mississippi River. General Sherman had attacked this town the year before, but had lost many men and been driven back. In the spring Grant moved his army to a position south of the town, and marched up and began to besiege it.

There were two Confederate armies, one in the town and one outside of it. The one outside was defeated and forced to retreat, and the one inside was closed in by long lines of earthworks that reached the river both below and above the town. A terrible fire was kept up by the forts upon the city, and the gun-boats on the river threw in bomb-shells and cannon-balls from the other side.

There was dreadful distress within the city. No one could get out of it, and hundreds were being killed within it. To make it worse, the food gave out. Mules and horses were killed and eaten. Soon there was a famine in Vicksburg. There was much sickness also, and the storm of cannon-balls never ceased.

This could not continue. On the 4th of July, the same day that Lee retreated from Gettysburg, Vicksburg surrendered. Twenty-seven thousand prisoners fell into General Grant's hands. This was a most important 4th of July for the people of the United States, for with it ended nearly all chance of success for the South. They fought on, but it was a losing game from that time.

Chattanooga.—Port Hudson surrendered three days afterwards, and the whole length of the Mississippi was open to

the Union gun-boats. The rest of the fighting in the West for that year took place near the town of Chattanooga, in Tennessee. A severe battle was fought in September, in which the Union army was defeated. It retreated to Chattanooga, while the Confederate army took possession of the mountains around the city, and shut the Union army in so closely that it became very short of food.

General Grant was now made commander of all the Western armies. He came to Chattanooga and took charge there. General Bragg, the Confederate commander, held strong positions on Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, each of which was nearly half a mile high and defended by strong forts. Yet the Union army charged up the hills through all the fire of these forts. It was a desperate attempt, but the forts were taken and Bragg's army was driven out with great loss. This has always been considered one of the most brilliant victories of the war.

Grant Commander-in-Chief.—In 1864, General Grant was made commander-in-chief of all the military forces of the United States. He at once laid plans to have the armies of the country work together and bring the war to an end as quickly as possible. General Sherman was left in command of the Western army, while Grant came to Virginia and took control of General Meade's soldiers.

Grant's Advance.—The grand advance of all the forces began early in May. In Virginia, Grant led his army across the Rapidan River into the thicket of the Wilderness. Here the battle between Hooker and Lee had taken place just a year before. Another desperate battle was now fought, in which neither army was victorious. Then General Grant marched towards Richmond and Lee followed him. Several severe battles took place, the last of them at Cold Harbor, near Richmond. This was a terrible encounter.

Lee's army was behind strong earthworks, which the Union soldiers could not enter, on account of the terrible fire of the Confederates. Grant lost ten thousand men killed and wounded, and Lee not more than a thousand. Then Grant moved south again, crossed the James River, and began a siege of Richmond and Petersburg. This siege lasted nine months.

Sheridan's Ride.—In July, Lee sent General Early up the Shenandoah Valley to Maryland. Early marched along the Potomac, and for a time Washington was in danger. But General Sheridan was sent against him, and defeated him in several battles. In one of these the striking event known as "Sheridan's Ride" took place. Early made a night attack on Sheridan's army at Fisher's Hill, and drove it back in great confusion. Sheridan was then at Winchester, twenty miles away. But he heard the distant roar of the battle, sprang to his horse, and rode at furious speed to the scene of conflict. Here he put himself at the head of his men, led them forward, and drove back the victorious Confederates in a complete rout. Defeat was turned into victory almost in a moment, and Sheridan at once became a famous general.

Sherman's March to the Sea.—In the West, General Sherman did some remarkable work. He marched against the Confederate army, and battle after battle took place. At the end of every battle Sherman moved farther into Georgia, until he had taken the important city of Atlanta, which was a great railroad centre.

General Hood, who now commanded the Confederate army, marched north, thinking that Sherman would follow him. But instead of that Sherman sent some help to General Thomas, who had command in Tennessee, and then started on a march through Georgia, destroying the railroads



as he went. This was Sherman's famous "March to the Sea." He kept on until he reached the coast of Savannah, and took that city.

Hood's Defeat at Nashville.—Meanwhile General Hood had marched into Tennessee and brought his army in front of Nashville, where General Thomas was in command. For two weeks he besieged that town, and then Thomas made a sudden assault on him. In the battle that followed Hood's army was terribly defeated, and so broken to pieces that it never came together again. This victory ended the war in all that portion of the South.

Naval Victories.—During the year 1864 there were some important naval victories. There were several Confederate privateers, built in England, which had done much harm to American shipping. One of these, the *Alabama*, had taken sixty-five vessels. On June 19 the *Alabama* was met by the frigate *Kearsarge*, near the coast of France. A battle was fought, and at the end of two hours the *Alabama* was sunk.

Another battle took place in Mobile Bay. It was defended by strong forts and an iron-plated vessel, but Admiral Farragut sailed in with a fleet of wooden ships and soon took the forts and the iron-clad. He sailed past the forts standing in the rigging of his ship, spy-glass in hand, without seeming to care for the terrible danger which he ran. This bold action gave great fame to the brave admiral.

Sherman's March North.—With the opening of the year 1865 it was clear to everybody that the end of the war was near at hand. The South was in a desperate situation. General Sherman had left Savannah and was marching north. He marched into South Carolina and took possession of Charleston, and then kept on until he reached North Carolina.

Lee's Retreat.—At the same time General Grant was

pressing on Lee. Immense lines of earthworks had been built around Petersburg, but Grant's army kept moving southward until, on the 1st of April, it made an attack on the lower end of Lee's works, and won a victory at a place called Five Forks. General Lee then saw that he could hold on to Richmond no longer, and began a hasty march westward towards the mountains.

The End of the War.—Grant followed him with the utmost speed, and soon Lee found himself surrounded by a far stronger army than his own. He could fight no longer, and on the 9th of April he surrendered to General Grant at Appomattox Court-House, Virginia.

This surrender brought the war to an end. As soon as news of it spread through the South all the forces in the field laid down their arms, and the long and terrible civil war was over.

Assassination of Lincoln.—Yet one dreadful event followed. On April 14, five days after General Lee's surrender, President Lincoln was murdered. He was shot by an actor, named John Wilkes Booth, in a theatre at Washington. This terrible deed filled the whole country with horror, and threw a deep shadow on the joy that had been felt at the close of the war. No more shocking event had ever taken place in America.

PART VII.—QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

I. What great question disturbed the nation before 1860? Where were slaves kept in the early days of the country? Why were they kept in the South after they were set free in the North? What did many people in the North think about slavery? What law about slaves was passed in 1850? Did it settle the trouble? Who became President in 1849? What happened to him? Who became President in his place? Who was elected President in 1852? What new Territories were formed? What dispute arose about

them? What law was passed? Was this in agreement with the Missouri Compromise? What happened in Kansas? What new party succeeded the Whig party? What two parties were there after 1856? What was the feeling about slavery at that time? What can you tell about John Brown? What did he do in 1859? What was the end of his raid? Who was elected President in 1860? When did he take his seat as President? What took place between his election and the time he took his seat?

II. What had been threatened in South Carolina if Lincoln should be elected? What is meant by seceding? Explain the State Rights doctrine. What was done in South Carolina? What other States followed this example? What did these States call themselves? Whom did they elect as President and Vice-President? What fort was held by the United States in Charleston harbor? Who commanded there? What did the people of Charleston do? What was the result? What effect did this have on the country? What other States seceded? How many did that make in all? Where did the armies gather? Where and when was the first battle fought? What was the result? What did Congress do then? What was the principal work done in 1861? In what three regions did fighting take place in 1862? Where had the Confederates built forts in the West? By whom were they captured? Where did a great battle take place in Tennessee? Who commanded the two armies? Describe the battle. Where did a battle take place on the last day of 1862? What was the result? What strong place did the Confederates hold on the Mississippi? What was done by Admiral Farragut's fleet? What did the Union army wish to do on the Mississippi? What successes had the Union army gained in the West? Which side was successful in Virginia? What city had been made the capital of the Confederate States? Who was placed in command of the Union army? To what region did he lead it? What noted general was placed in command of the Confederate army? Why was the Confederate general Jackson called "Stonewall" Jackson? Where did he win victories? What did General Lee decide to do? Describe the seven days' fight. What did General Lee do next? Where did a battle take place between Lee and Pope? What was the result? Where did Lee then lead his army? Who followed him? Where did the two armies meet? What was the result of the battle of Antietam? Who was next made commander of the Union army? Where did a battle take place? What was the result of this battle? What was being done on the coast? What ports did the Union fleet blockade? What did the blockade runners do? What kind of vessels did the Confederates prepare? How was the *Merrimae* strengthened? What did it do to the wooden fleet in Norfolk harbor? What kind of vessels had the Union side been building? What was one of these iron vessels called?

Why? What was it named? When did it reach Norfolk harbor? Describe the fight with the Merrimac. What did this battle of iron-clad ships prove? With what important event did 1862 end? What was the first object of the war? Why did the President wish to free the slaves? On what day were they declared free? What was the proclamation called? How did it hurt the South and help the North? What is said of slavery at the end of the war?

III. What great battle was fought in Virginia in 1863? Who commanded the Union army? In what way did Stonewall Jackson surprise Hooker's army? What happened to Jackson? What was the result of the battle? What did General Lee do in June? What was thought of his intentions? What did the Union army do? Who now commanded it? Where did the armies meet? On what three days was the battle of Gettysburg fought? Describe the battle of the first day, of the second day, of the third day. What was the result of the battle? What is thought of it? What was General Grant doing in the West? Why did he wish to take Vicksburg? How did he enclose the Confederate army in Vicksburg? What happened in that city? On what day did Vicksburg surrender? How many prisoners were taken? What was the effect of the victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg on the Southern cause? Where did the rest of the fighting in the West take place in 1863? What happened to the Union army in September? How was it situated in Chattanooga? Who was made commander of all the Western armies? What great battles were fought at Chattanooga? What was the result? What position was given to General Grant in 1864? What plans did he lay? Who was left in command of the Western army? When did the general advance of the armies begin? Where did Grant lead the Army of Virginia? What battles took place? What was the result of the battle at Cold Harbor? What did Grant do then? How long did the siege of Petersburg last? What events took place in the Shenandoah Valley? Describe "Sheridan's Ride." What did General Sherman do in the West? Where did he march after taking Atlanta? What is this march called? What did General Hood do? Who was the Union commander at Nashville? What happened to Hood's army? What important naval battle took place in 1864? What harm had the Alabama done? Describe the naval battle in Mobile Bay. What did Sherman do in 1865? On what day did General Grant break through General Lee's lines? What did Lee do then? Where and when did Lee's surrender take place? What effect did this have? What dreadful event happened soon after? How did it affect the people?

PART VIII.

THE ERA OF PEACE AND PROGRESS.

I.—EVENTS SINCE THE WAR.

The Evil of the War.—The great war was at an end. What had been its cost to the country and what good had come of it? Let us see. In the first place a vast multitude of men had been taken from their homes to live the life and pass through the dangers of warfare. On the Union side more than two and a half millions of men had been in the army. At the end of the war there were still more than a million in the ranks. We do not know how many there were on the Confederate side. There were not nearly as many as on the Union side, probably not more than half the number. In the Union armies more than three hundred thousand men were killed, or died of wounds and disease, and the losses of the Confederate armies are supposed to have been as great.

This was a frightful slaughter, and to it must be added all those who died after the war from wounds, or other effects of the dangerous life of a soldier. The money cost of the war was also very great. At the end of the war the United States had a debt of \$2,750,000,000. The States and the cities also had heavy debts. We do not know how much the Confederate States had spent, but they must have used a very great amount of money and materials. And this money loss was only part of the loss. There was not much damage

done in the North, for nearly all the fighting had been in the Southern States. But in the South there was ruin everywhere. Railroads had been destroyed, towns burned, and much other damage done. It would take years to make up the losses of the war. Everybody in the South was poor, and they had lost all their slaves, who were valued at a great sum of money. But in the North scarcely any harm had been done to city or country, business of every kind had been good, and many had grown rich during the war. The South was in a dreadful condition, but the North showed hardly any signs of injury from the great conflict.

The Good of the War.—Great courage and skill had been shown on both sides. It was made clear that the Americans north and south are a brave people; they had more respect for each other than ever before. So much good was accomplished. The war, as we have said, was not fought to abolish slavery, but to preserve the Union. Its purpose was to keep the nation together, and in this it had succeeded. It will be long again before any State tries to secede.

Slavery was abolished, but this had been done as an act of war, to help the North to conquer in the great contest. Yet it was an act that could not be undone. The slaves had been set free, and free they must continue while America remains a nation. The South would not have them as slaves again if it could. The people there have found that they are better off without slavery. Thus the great question which so long divided the nation is set at rest forever. This was the greatest good that came of the war. The civilization of America is to-day a much higher one than it was thirty years ago.

Reconstruction.—Let us go on to see what followed the war. We have told how President Lincoln was assassinated.

Nothing ever took place in this country that caused more grief and horror. The people of the North had come to look on Abraham Lincoln as a man as great and noble as George Washington, and it was a terrible shock to them that he should be killed at the end of his great work. Few things ever happened in the country that caused so much excitement and angry feeling, and the murder of Lincoln made the difficult questions that followed the war much harder to settle.

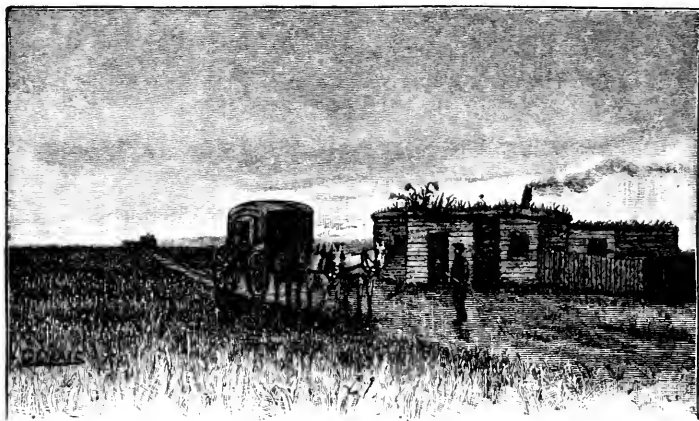
He had just been elected to a second term as President, and the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, now took his place. The government had serious work before it. The war was over, but it had left everything in disorder. Eleven States had declared themselves out of the Union. They were to be brought back again. How was this to be done?

The slaves were now free in all the States. An amendment to the Constitution had been adopted on April 8, 1864, setting free all slaves within the United States. This is known as the Thirteenth Amendment. The seceded States had to agree to it before they could come back. Another amendment, the Fourteenth, was offered, and was adopted in July, 1868. This gave negroes all the rights of white people, except the right to vote. The seceded States had to agree to this also.

The President impeached.—President Johnson objected to these amendments, and to the other laws passed by Congress on the same subject. He vetoed them all. This made much bitter feeling between him and Congress, and in the end he was impeached; that is, he was accused of not doing the duty he had sworn to do, and was tried before the Senate, which acted as a court. The trial caused great excitement in the country. The Senate heard all that was to be said on both sides, and decided that the President had

not acted contrary to his oath of office, and therefore was not guilty of the charges against him. This was the only time an American President has been tried for failure to do his duty.

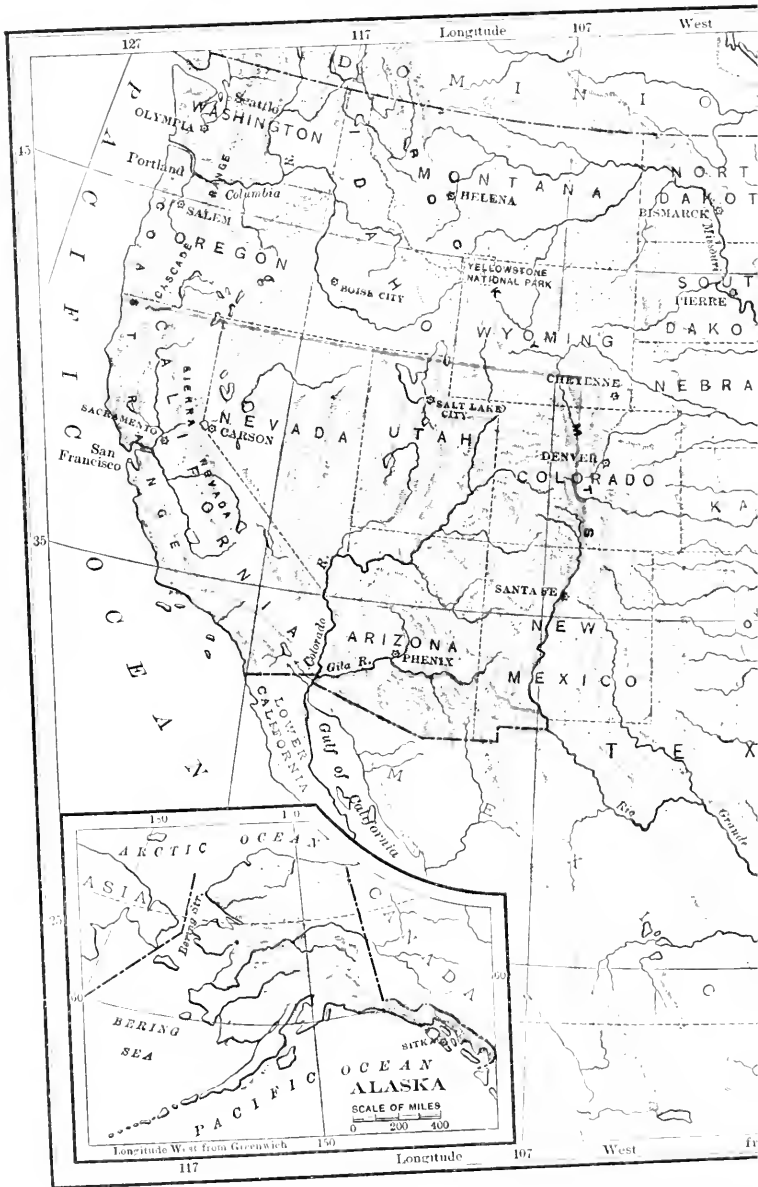
The Suffrage Amendment.—In 1870 another amendment to the Constitution was adopted. It is known as the Fifteenth Amendment. It gave to negroes, both those who had lately been slaves and those who had always been free, the right to vote. Under this law every American of the

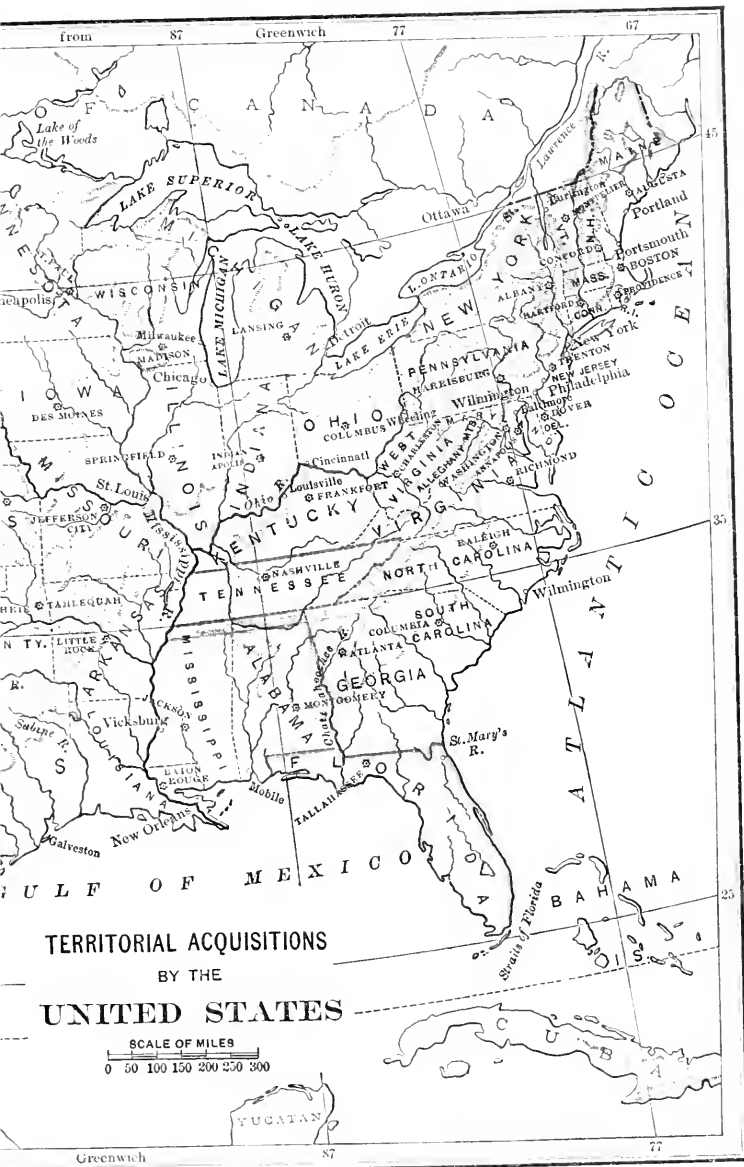


A STAGE-RANCH ON THE WYOMING PLAINS.

proper age, except women and Indians, can vote. One by one the seceded States agreed to these amendments, and were taken back into the Union. Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas were the last. These came back in 1870.

Indian Wars.—During this time there was much trouble with the Western Indians, and travel across the plains became very dangerous. The Indians east of the Mississippi had been quieted long before, but settlers were pushing





everywhere into the Western country, and many of them treated the Indians very unjustly, who in return killed the settlers and burned their houses. This brought on several Indian wars, and it took a great deal of fighting to put down the tribes. Many persons were killed on both sides, but in the end most of the Indians were placed on reservations, or lands set aside for them. Here they are taken care of by the government. Many of these reservations are in the Indian Territory, but there are others in all the States and Territories west of the Mississippi River, and some in the States east of that river.

Alaska.—In 1867 another addition was made to the territory of the United States. The region known as Alaska was bought from Russia. It is a large country, but most of it is of little use, on account of the coldness of the climate. Yet many furs come from there, and on some islands near the coast the valuable fur seals are found in great numbers. The fisheries are also of great value. Rich deposits of gold have been found there, and mines opened, and in many respects Alaska is an important addition to the country.

The Chicago Fire.—In 1868, General Grant was elected to the Presidency, and took his seat on the 4th of March, 1869. He remained President for eight years. In these eight years some important events happened. One of these was the Chicago fire, the greatest conflagration that has ever been known in America. It is doubtful if any fire in any other city of the world ever destroyed so much property. It began on October 8, 1871, and burned for three days. The part of the city burned was four and a half miles long and a mile wide. One hundred thousand people were left without homes, and two hundred were killed. The money loss was about two hundred million dollars. In the same year great forest fires broke out in the neighboring States.

In Wisconsin many villages were burned and fifteen hundred people perished.

In November of the next year a terrible fire broke out in Boston, which destroyed property valued at seventy-five million dollars. Yet so great was the activity of the people that in a few years both those cities were built up again, and very little trace of the fires remained.

The Alabama Claims.—Another great event which happened while Grant was President was the settlement of the “Alabama claims.” We must explain what this means. In the last chapter we told how the Confederate privateer, the *Alabama*, had sailed from England, and captured and burned many American merchant vessels on the ocean. For this the United States blamed England. The *Alabama* was built in England, and it was said that the British government had no right to let it set sail, and that England ought to pay for all the damage that this vessel had done.

The dispute might have brought on a war between America and England, but both nations agreed to let it be settled by a commission of men chosen by the two countries. This was done, and the commission found that England was in the wrong, and must pay damages to the United States. The amount was sixteen million two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. This was the first great question between nations that was settled in this way. Such questions are generally decided by war, but it would be far better and cheaper to decide them all in a peaceful manner.

The Business Panic.—In 1873 a great business panic began. It was brought on in the same way as that of 1837 had been. There was wild speculation everywhere, many families lived in great luxury, many more railroads were built than the country needed, and every man in business fancied that he was growing rich. Suddenly some great

business houses proved unable to pay their debts, and this quickly brought others into the same trouble. The difficulty rapidly spread over the whole country. Banks failed, factories stopped running, the building of railroads came to an end, money was not to be had, and thousands of people who had believed themselves in the way to grow rich found themselves poor. For the working people there was very



MEMORIAL HALL.

little to do. It was the worst business trouble the country had ever seen, for there were many more to feel it than in the past. Five or six years elapsed before all the effects of the panic passed away and business became as good as it had been before 1873.

The Centennial Exhibition.—There was one more interesting event while Grant was President. In 1876 it would be just one hundred years from the date in which

America had declared herself free, and the people determined to celebrate this event in a grand way. So it was decided to hold a great exhibition in Philadelphia, where the Declaration of Independence had been signed. Large buildings were prepared for a world's fair, and goods were sent from every part of the country and from every foreign nation. Millions of people visited it, some of them coming from distant parts of the earth. Nothing of the kind had ever been seen in America, and it was a great lesson to the people of this country. They learned there in what things America was superior to Europe, and in what Europe was superior to America. Every one saw that in machinery no other country could surpass the United States, but that in art Europe was far in advance. But this is not so much the case to-day. Great progress has been made in American art since that time; her people have been wise enough to profit by the lesson of the Centennial Exhibition.

The Election of 1876.—In November, 1876, there was an election for President that caused much feeling. The Republican candidate was Rutherford B. Hayes, the Democratic, Samuel J. Tilden. The election was so close that there was a dispute as to who had been elected. Congress was not able to settle this, so a commission of fifteen men was chosen from the members of Congress and the judges of the Supreme Court. This commission decided that Hayes was elected President, so he took his seat on the 4th of March, 1877.

Several things of importance took place during his term of office. While the war was going on gold had become of more value than paper money. From the beginning of 1862 it had not been used as money, and all the business of the country was done with bank-notes. This continued until 1879. On the 1st of January of that year the government

began to pay out gold to its creditors, and since then paper money has been worth as much as gold.

In 1878 yellow fever broke out in many of the cities of the South, and raged so fiercely that thousands of the people died. Business could not be carried on, so there was much suffering from this cause also. The fever appeared again the next year. The people of the North did much to help the sufferers in the South during this terrible period. Money, food, and other necessities were given in large amounts, doctors and nurses went South at the peril of their lives, and the warm feeling of sympathy that was shown did much to hasten the growing good feeling between the two sections of the country.

Garfield's Election.—When the time came for the next Presidential election (1880) the Republicans nominated General James A. Garfield, the Democrats, General W. S. Hancock. Garfield was elected. The new President soon showed that he was going to do what he thought was for the good of the country. When men asked for offices he did not trouble himself to know what they had done for the party, but was careful to find out if they knew anything about the work of the office, and could be trusted to do their duty.

The Assassination of Garfield.—This gave great offence to some persons who wanted offices, but were not fit to do the work required. One of these men, named Charles J. Guiteau, became so angry that he resolved to kill the President. On the 2d of July, 1881, four months after Garfield was inaugurated, this man came up behind him in the railroad depot at Washington, drew a pistol, and shot him in the back.

The President fell, severely wounded. The news spread rapidly over the country, and caused as much horror and

excitement as had been occasioned by the death of Lincoln. Garfield did not die at once. He lay sick for more than three months. During this interval every one felt the greatest sympathy for him, and when he died, on the 19th of September, it was as if every family in the land had lost one of its dearest members. The wounded President had been so brave and patient in his suffering that the people of all parties had grown to love him. The whole people of the country seemed watching by his bedside, for the telegraph brought them news almost as quickly as if they had been there, and nothing has ever shown more clearly the wonderful character of the telegraphic service than the way in which the story of the dying President was laid every morning before the anxious and sympathetic nation.

Election of Cleveland.—After the death of Garfield the Vice-President, Chester A. Arthur, became President, and filled the office till March 4, 1885. On that day Grover Cleveland took his seat as President. He was elected as the candidate of the Democratic party, and was the first Democratic President since 1856.

In the Presidential election of 1888, Benjamin Harrison, the Republican candidate, was chosen, and took his seat on March 4, 1889. He is the grandson of General Harrison, who had been made President in 1841.

The Charleston Earthquake.—In 1886 there occurred an event that was in some respects more terrible than the Chicago fire. A great earthquake took place. The centre of its force was in South Carolina, and the city of Charleston was so shaken that a great part of it fell in ruins to the ground. Nothing so dreadful of this kind had ever been known in the United States. A single minute turned a happy and prosperous city into a distressed and ruined one. The

people ran in terror from their falling houses, but many were killed in the houses and in the streets. The earth cracked open here and there, and mud and stones were thrown into the air. The people of Charleston lost ten million dollars by this earthquake shock, besides all the suffering they endured.

The Chicago Anarchists.—For a number of years there has been much trouble in this country between working people and their employers. The working people have joined into strong societies, and there have been many great strikes for wages. In Chicago, on May 1, 1886, there was a strike in favor of making eight hours the time of a day's work. This led to an awful scene of murder. There was a large party of foreigners in Chicago who wanted to do away with all law and order, and declared that no man had a right to be richer than other men, but that all ought to be alike in this respect.

During the eight-hour strike there was held a meeting of these anarchists, as they were called, which the police tried to break up, but while they were attempting to do so some one in the crowd threw among them a bomb charged with dynamite. Dynamite is an explosive substance which is much more violent in its action than gunpowder. The bomb burst in their midst and did terrible damage. Six of the policemen were killed and sixty-one wounded. The police drew their pistols and fired on the mob, and many of the anarchists, in their turn, were killed and wounded. Seven were arrested and found guilty of murder. Of these one killed himself, four were hung, and the others sent to prison for life.

The Johnstown Disaster.—On May 31, 1889, a terrible event took place. During a severe rain-storm a dam gave way on a branch of the Conemaugh River, in Western Pennsylvania. The whole valley of the river was swept

with a destructive flood, and the city of Johnstown and several smaller places were carried away on the raging waters. Five or six thousand people were drowned and many millions of dollars' worth of property destroyed. No accident so dreadful in loss of life had ever happened in America before. Much food and clothing and great sums of money were given by charitable people to aid the sufferers, but the terrible loss of life no money could repay, and the Johnstown flood will long be remembered in the history of destructive events.

The Pan-American Congress.—In the latter part of 1889 and the early part of 1890 a very important meeting was held in the city of Washington. Delegates from all the nations of North and South America came together, to see what could be done to aid commerce and harmony between these nations, and to do away with war. It was decided to try and settle all quarrels between them by peaceful means, to take measures for the improvement of trade, to build a railroad through all these nations, and to do other things for the benefit of the American peoples. A survey for such a railroad, to run through North and South America, has been partly made, and it is probable that the road will in time be built.

The McKinley Tariff.—In 1890 a tariff bill was passed by Congress, which put a higher tax or duty on many articles brought from other countries. It is known as the McKinley tariff, because it was offered by Mr. McKinley, of Ohio. It was hoped that it would be a great help to manufactures in America, by keeping out foreign goods from this country, but there is a wide difference of opinion about this, for many say that the American people would be better off with a low tariff. This is to-day the great question in American politics.

Reciprocity in Trade.—The McKinley Tariff had in it an important provision for free trade, which had been advised by the Pan-American Congress. This was known by the long word reciprocity. It was decided that sugar, coffee, tea, and hides, which are the leading products of the Central and South American countries, should come into the United States without paying duty, if the nations sending them would take certain of our products free of duty. Most of the American nations did so, and free trade in their principal products existed for a time between nearly all the countries of America.

The Silver Bill.—For many years the United States had been coining silver money very actively. In 1878 Congress passed what is known as the Bland Silver Bill, under which the mints had to make a great many silver dollars every year. In 1890 this bill was replaced by the Sherman Silver Bill, which required the United States Treasury to buy four million five hundred thousand ounces of silver every month. In the spring and summer of 1893 the country was in danger of a business panic like that of 1873. Money became scarce, the banks refused to lend money to their customers, many banks, merchants, and manufacturers failed, and thousands of people had no work to do. Most of the people thought that this was caused by the great quantity of silver stored up in the mints, which no other country would accept as money, and President Cleveland called an extra session of Congress, to meet on August 7, 1893, for the purpose of trying to change the law which required silver to be bought. As a result the Sherman Silver Bill was repealed, and since that time no silver has been bought by the government. But there was much silver then in the treasury, and this continued to be made into dollars and other silver coins.

New States.—In 1889 four new States were added to the Union. The large Territory of Dakota was divided into two States, named North Dakota and South Dakota, and the Territories of Washington and Montana were made States. In 1890 two other States were added, Idaho and Wyoming, and Utah in 1896. These make the total number of States forty-five. There are still four Territories, Alaska, Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma.

The election of members of Congress in 1890 gave the Democratic party a great victory, the House of Representatives gaining a Democratic majority of one hundred and fifty-three members. In the Senate the Republicans still kept a majority.

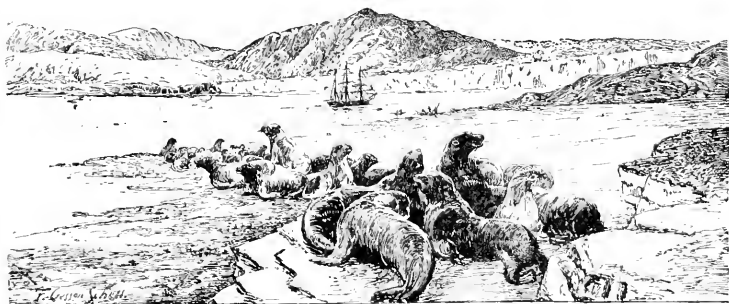
Another important event of 1890 was the United States Census. The count of the population showed that there were in this country sixty-two millions six hundred and twenty-two thousand two hundred and fifty people, an increase of more than twelve millions since 1880, and of about fifty-nine millions since the first census in 1790, a century before.

Copyright Bill.—In 1891 Congress passed an important bill, known as the Copyright Bill. Ever since the country was established the writers of books had had no protection in foreign lands. Any Englishman could publish and sell an American book, and any American could do the same with an English book, and pay the author nothing. The Copyright Bill put an end to this, and gave protection to authors.

Among the changes of the past few years was a great increase in the pension list, both in the number of persons receiving pensions, and the amount paid them. The sum now paid out every year for pensions is not far from one hundred and forty million dollars, much the greatest sum

ever paid for this purpose. Changes were also made in the immigration laws, so as to keep out of this country all persons not likely to make good and useful citizens.

Alaskan Seal Fisheries.—For a number of years there had been a dispute between the United States and England, on account of Canadian fishing-vessels killing the fur seals which make their homes on the islands of Bering Sea, in Alaska, and which the United States claim as their own property. After many vessels had been seized, and there had been much bitter feeling, the question was given over



FUR SEALS, ALASKA.

to arbitrators to settle, both nations agreeing to accept the decision of the court of arbitration, whose members were chosen from several nations. The arbitrators decided that the United States did not own the seals when found far from the islands, though it laid down a set of rules for the protection of these animals. But it is found that these rules do not work very well, and if something else is not done to save the seals they will soon be all killed.

The Presidential Election of 1892.—In 1892 the Republicans nominated for the next term of office Benjamin Harrison, who was then President. The Democrats nominated

Grover Cleveland, who had been President from 1885 to 1889. Another prominent candidate for the nomination was James G. Blaine, Secretary of State under President Harrison. He was not nominated, which was perhaps fortunate, as his health was very bad, and he died two months after the election. When the election took place it was found that Cleveland was elected, with the large majority over Harrison of one hundred and thirty electoral votes. The Democratic party also gained a majority in both houses of Congress, for the first time in many years.

The American Quadricentennial.—By this long word is meant the end of the fourth century since the discovery of America by Columbus, which took place on the 12th of October, 1492. It was decided to make it the occasion for a great World's Fair, to be held in the city of Chicago in 1893, as the buildings could not be got ready in 1892. The anniversary was celebrated in October, 1892, in New York by great processions, naval, military, and civic, and in Chicago by the dedication of the World's Fair buildings. All through the country there were parades and festivities.

The Fair was opened at Chicago on May 10, 1893. Magnificent preparations had been made for it, the buildings being of very great size and very beautiful in appearance. In all there were more than one hundred and fifty buildings. One of these, called the Building of Manufactures and Liberal Arts, covered more than thirty acres, and was the largest exhibition building ever erected. The buildings cost nearly twenty million dollars; they were covered with a substance that made them look like white marble, and their architecture was very fine. They were filled with splendid exhibits, and the Fair was very successful, many millions of people visiting it. It is looked upon

as the largest, finest, and most beautiful World's Fair ever held.

The Wilson Tariff.—The Democratic party was now in power, and the new Congress, after repealing the Silver Purchase Act, took action upon the tariff. The McKinley tariff of 1890 had laid high duties on imported goods, which was believed by the Democrats to be injurious to the country and a wrong to the people. Congress, therefore, in 1894, passed a new tariff bill, known as the Wilson Tariff, which put lower duties on many articles. A tax was also laid on the incomes of the rich, but this the Supreme Court said was unconstitutional, and could not be law.

The Strikes.—In 1892 a terrible strike of workmen took place in the iron-works at Homestead, near Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, at which many people were killed. Another great strike broke out in Chicago in 1894 against the Pullman Car Company. Severe riots followed and much property was destroyed, and in the end the President had to send United States soldiers to force the rioters to obey the laws.

Utah made a State.—Utah had been settled by the Mormons, a people whose religious belief permitted them to have more than one wife. This was against the laws of the country, and Congress passed an act to prevent it in 1882. In 1890 the Mormons consented to give up polygamy, as the custom was called. There were many people in Utah who were not Mormons, and who wished it to be made a State. As the laws had been obeyed, this was now granted, an Act was passed for this purpose in 1893, and on January 4, 1896, President Cleveland proclaimed the admission of Utah as the forty-fifth State of the Union.

Venezuela.—A dispute had long existed between Great Britain and Venezuela about the boundary line between that country and British Guiana. Many persons believed

that Great Britain was taking from Venezuela more land than she had any just claim to, and in 1895 the President asked Congress to interfere in the matter. Long debate and much bad feeling followed, but in the end Great Britain agreed to let the matter be settled by arbitration. This was a great triumph for the United States, which is now looked upon as the protector of the weaker nations of America.

The Election of 1896.—In 1896 the Republicans nominated William McKinley, of Ohio, for the Presidency. The Democrats and the Populists (a new party) nominated William J. Bryan, of Nebraska. The Populist party held that the government should buy and coin all the silver that was offered, and most of the Democrats thought the same, though some of them said, with the Republicans, that only gold ought to be coined. McKinley was the choice of the majority, and became President March 4, 1897.

A New Tariff.—The President at once called Congress together to consider what should be done to raise more revenue for the country, and advised that higher duties should be placed on imported goods, as he thought this would both put more money in the treasury and help business. A new tariff, higher in its rates than the Wilson tariff, was accordingly passed, and became law, July 24, 1897.

Other Events.—Two interesting events which took place in 1897 were the dedication of General Grant's tomb at New York on April 27, and the unveiling of the monument of Washington, erected by the Society of the Cincinnati, at Philadelphia, on May 15. Both of these were attended with great processions and imposing ceremonies. On May 1 began an attractive exhibition of American industries at Nashville, Tennessee, in honor of the Centennial Anniversary of the admission of the State into the Union. In the spring of 1897 took place the greatest flood in the Missis-

issippi River ever known, thousands of square miles of rich farming land being overflowed.

II.—RECENT PROGRESS IN AMERICA.

The Disbanding of the Armies.—When the war came to an end there were more than a million of men in the armies of the North. These were trained soldiers who knew all about the art of war, but had long been removed from the arts of peace. In old times such an army would have set up a kingdom and put their leader on the throne. Their generals would have become nobles, and spent a life of pride and idleness while making the people work for them.

What did the army of America do? As fast as the soldiers were paid off they laid down their arms and returned home, where they at once went to work to make a peaceful living. They became farmers, mechanics, merchants, etc., as they had been before the war. The generals began to make their living in the same quiet way as the men from the ranks. Even General Grant and General Lee were not too proud to work to earn a living. In a year or two after the war the armies had disappeared. Only the few soldiers were left that were needed to act as police for the nation.

This was a remarkable result. In the countries of Europe to-day there are millions of soldiers, though these countries are at peace. Twenty-five thousand soldiers are enough to answer all the purposes of the United States, and these are principally employed in keeping the Indians in order. The people of America are not forced to give part of their wages to keep up great and useless armies, and this is one reason why American workmen are so much better off than those of Europe.

The Electric Cable.—It is in the arts of peace that America is now winning its victories. Let us see what some

of these have been. One of these victories of peace came just after the war. An electric wire, or cable, was laid under the ocean from America to Europe in 1866, and people began to send messages to one another under two thousand miles of sea. Since that time other cables have been laid between Europe and America, and every day now our papers print long accounts of what is taking place in Europe. They get their news from that great distance more quickly than they could have got news from a place ten miles away in the last century.

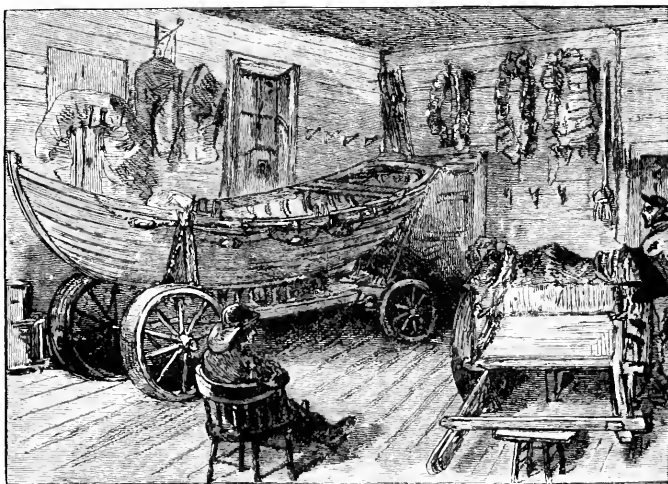
Telegraph Extension.—In the United States telegraph wires now spread everywhere, and everything of importance that takes place is told in the newspapers of the whole country a few hours afterwards. There are more than one hundred and ninety thousand miles of telegraph wire, three times as much as in any other country, and enough to go seven times around the earth.

Signal Service.—One of the great benefits of the telegraph is its use in the signal service. Every day the state of the weather in all parts of the country is telegraphed to Washington. The reports thus received are carefully studied, and the kind of weather that is likely to come is made out and telegraphed in all directions. Warnings of storms thus sent are of great use to sea-captains and farmers, and there is no one who does not take interest in them. Along the coast there are life-saving stations, for the rescue of sailors and passengers from wrecked ships. These have proved of great service, and many lives have been saved by their brave crews.

Electrical Discoveries.—Electricity has been made useful in many other ways. The streets of many of our cities and towns are brightly lighted with it, and stores and houses also use it for this purpose. It is used to run machinery and

locomotives. By the invention of the telephone men are able to talk with one another over many miles of distance in the same tones they use in talking face to face. All this is very wonderful. It seems the work of magic. Yet it is as true as wonderful, and is the work of thought and industry, not of magic.

Railroad Extension.—The railroads have made as great progress as the telegraphs. The greatest feat in railroad



LIFE-SAVING STATION.

building that the world had known up to that time was finished in 1869. This was the Central Pacific Railroad, from Omaha, across the great plains of the West and the Rocky Mountains, to San Francisco. The last spike of this railroad was driven in May, 1869, at Ogden, in the Territory of Utah. This spike was connected with the telegraph wires, so that, as the blows of the hammer fell on it, they were heard in the telegraph offices of the principal cities of the

East. This was another great triumph of the telegraph, for these offices were thousands of miles away from where the spike was being driven. Since then two other Pacific railroads, the Northern and the Southern Pacific, have been built. A traveller can now go from New York to San Francisco, a distance of three thousand three hundred miles, in five days. He can cross the ocean to Europe in nearly as short a time in the fast steamships which now start at frequent intervals.

There are now over one hundred and eighty thousand miles of railroad in the United States,—more than in all Europe, and nearly as much as in all the world outside of this country. These railroads have been a wonderful aid to travel. Sixty years ago it took a person nearly a year to go from Oregon to Washington; now he can do it in a few days. Thousands of persons travel to-day for every one who did so a century ago. Then a man would make his will if he were going from New York to Boston; now he would hardly think of doing so if he were going to China. Railroads are also of the greatest use in carrying goods of all kinds from one part of the country to another. Without them it would be impossible for the great cities of America to exist, for they could not get the food their people need.

Postal Service.—It is wonderful how letter-writing has grown in America since the days of the railroad. In 1790 there were only seventy-five post-offices in the United States; now there are over seventy thousand. Then it took two days for a letter to go from Philadelphia to New York; now it takes two hours. Then the postage was ten cents up to forty miles, and twenty-five cents for distances over five hundred miles; now it is two cents to all parts of the country, and five cents to Europe.

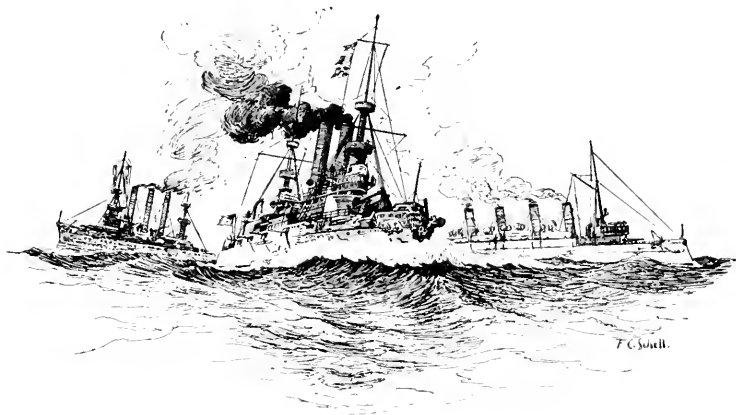
Electric Cars.—For many years past the people of our cities have ridden through the streets in cars drawn by horses. Electricity has now taken the place of horses for this purpose, and cars filled with passengers may be seen darting along in a way that seems magical, for no eye can behold the power that makes them move. These trolley cars, as they are called, run also far into the country and from city to city, and in some places large engines are moved by electric power. Many think that the travel of the future will be largely done in electric cars and that the steam locomotive will pass away.

Bicycles.—There is another favorite mode of travel in our days, one in which the traveller himself supplies the power. This is the bicycle, whose wheels are moved by the muscles of the rider. It has been improved until it can go as fast as the horse, and travel much farther in a day. Hundreds of thousands of these “silent steeds,” as some have called them, are now in use in every part of the country and by all classes of people. Men, women, and children take useful exercise in this way, and the flying wheel is one of the most common objects seen in city streets and on country roads.

Motor Carriages.—The horse is of much less use than of old. Not only electric cars and bicycles have taken the place of this useful animal, but carriages to run without horses are coming into use. These are moved by small motors, worked by electricity, steam, or other sources of power. Many of them are used in France, and other countries are employing them. In time they may become as common as ordinary carriages are to-day.

The New Navy.—In the past battle-ships were built of wood and had high masts, with a great sweep of sail. At present war-vessels are covered with thick plates of steel,

and are moved by powerful steam-engines. The fleets that once proudly swept the seas would soon be sent to the bottom by the great rifled cannons now in use. The nations of Europe have built themselves large navies of this kind. The United States long had only the old-fashioned monitors of the civil war, but is now building a new navy, some of whose vessels are among the swiftest and strongest in



MODERN BATTLE-SHIPS.

the world. It is still small, but new vessels are added every year, and in time this country is likely to have as fine and powerful a navy as any in the world.

Increase of Population.—The population of the United States in 1790, when the first census was taken, was less than four millions. The census of 1890 made it about sixty-two and a half millions,—an addition of nearly sixty millions in a century. This is a great increase. If this rate of growth continues the United States will soon have the greatest population of any civilized country on the earth. The people of Europe are coming here in multitudes every

year; often more than half a million in a year. These spread over all parts of the country, and are very useful as farmers, laborers, and mechanics. Many of them, however, are very ignorant and do not make good citizens. There are laws to prevent paupers and some other classes from entering the country, and it is proposed to keep out all who cannot read or write. Other restrictions will, no doubt, in time be made, so that only the more desirable classes of immigrants can be admitted.

The Indians.—Many Chinese also have come to America, but the laws do not permit any more to enter the country. They did not make good citizens, and were arriving in such numbers that it became necessary to stop them. The Indians, who once had possession of the whole country, are now collected on reservations in the West. They are so few in number that these reservations are very thinly peopled. There has been no fighting for several years with the Indians, and perhaps may be no more. They are provided with food by the government, but many of them are working for themselves. Some of the tribes in the Indian Territory are becoming civilized. They hold their lands in common; but it is proposed to divide them into farms, and give each Indian family its own farm. It is thought that they will become more contented and industrious if this is done.

One of the great means taken to civilize the Indians is by education. Schools have been started at various points, in which Indian children are taught the elements of knowledge, the use of tools, and the benefits of industry. These schools are proving very useful, and many young Indians are going back to their tribes with trained hands and cultivated minds. In a few years these young men will become leaders in the tribes, and must do much to bring them into habits of civilization. The days of the wild Indians of this country are

nearly over. In the future we shall have working and thinking Indians to take their place.

Increase of Wealth.—In the years that have passed since the close of the war the United States has grown greatly in riches. In 1880, Great Britain was the only country in the world that had more wealth. In 1890 the United States was probably the richest country on the earth. Part of this wealth comes from the product of the American mines. The mines of the West yield a large value in gold and silver yearly; but the iron, coal, copper, and other mines of the country are yet more valuable. And of still greater value is the soil, which yields more food than all the people of the United States can consume.

Manufacturing Industries.—Another great source of this wealth is the manufacturing industry of the United States, which produces thousands of millions of dollars' worth of goods yearly. In former times most of the articles used in this country were brought from Europe, but now many things are sent from here to Europe. American watches are the cheapest in the world, and no better are made anywhere. Many other things came from abroad, such as glassware, fine furniture, soap, writing-paper, perfumery, carriages, and numerous other articles; now we make more than we can use of these goods, and send many of them to other countries. At one time all our fine knives, tools, and other goods of steel came from Sheffield, in England, and only coarse cutlery and tools were made here; now American cutlery is sent to Sheffield and sold there. Years ago nearly all our carpets were brought from England; but now the city of Philadelphia is the greatest carpet manufacturing city in the world. The same could be said of many other things. The United States sends to other countries to-day great quantities of manufactured goods, meat, and grain. We

produce so much more than we can use that there is plenty left to sell to other countries.

Invention of Machinery.—This great progress is due to the remarkable inventive power of the Americans. In machinery for saving labor the United States is in advance of all other nations. Our inventors are so active that more than twenty-two thousand patents have been granted in a single year. Machines are made to do all kinds of work. Farmers do not have to work half so hard as they once did, and yet produce much more. The same may be said of every kind of manufacturing business. A hundred years ago the printing-press could only print two hundred and fifty sheets on one side in an hour; now forty thousand sheets can be printed on both sides in the same time.

Progress of the South.—This progress is not confined to the North and West. The South is making great progress also. At the end of the war the Southern States were in a condition of ruin. Only their soil was left, and much of that had been so overworked that it was of no value. The slaves whom they had depended on to do their work were free. It looked as if it would take a century to recover from the ruin of the war.

Yet the South to-day is richer and better off than it ever was. Free labor has proved more profitable than slave labor, and the crops of cotton and other produce are greater than ever. And the white population has gone to work nobly and cheerfully. The country is being developed everywhere. Iron and coal mines are now being opened and worked, and workshops and factories are being built in many parts of the South. Great exhibitions have been held at New Orleans, Atlanta, and Nashville, in which the progress of the South was shown. In the time to come the whole country will be one great hive of indus-

try, and all parts will work together for the good of the whole.

The Pacific States.—While there has been great progress in the older parts of the country, the same may be said of the far West. There are no more productive States in the Union than those that border on the Pacific. For many miles inland from the ocean the land is very fertile and the crops are large, fruits being especially fine and plentiful. The orchards of Oregon and the vineyards and orange groves of California are nowhere surpassed.

In the mountain regions of the West little rain falls and much of the country is a desert. But the water of the rivers and mountain streams is carried to the fields in long canals, from which many small ditches convey it to the soil. This system is called irrigation, and large crops are raised by its aid. Great herds of cattle and sheep are also kept, and the mountains are covered with forests of valuable timber, many of the trees being of immense size.

Mining.—But the great value of the Sierra Nevada and Rocky Mountains lies in their mines of the precious metals and of other valuable minerals. Gold, silver, lead, and copper are abundant, and rich deposits of many other minerals are found. No part of the world has yielded more gold than California; Nevada and Colorado have proved very rich in silver; and others of the Western States have mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, etc.

Gold in Alaska.—For a number of years men have been seeking gold in Alaska, and in the summer of 1897 the news came that rich deposits of placer gold had been found on the Klondike, a branch of the great Yukon River. The region is cold and barren, and very difficult to reach; but thousands of miners went there, though there was danger that they might starve from lack of food. Gold is likely

to be found on other streams of that region, and Alaska will soon be the abiding-place of a gold-seeking multitude. In placer deposits the gold is found in the sands and gravels along the rivers, having been washed from the quartz veins in the mountains. To obtain it the earth is dug up and the sand and dirt washed from the gold by running water.



GOLD-MINERS IN ALASKA.

In Alaska the ground is frozen, and must be softened by fires before the gold-bearing soil can be obtained. This is done in the winter, and the earth is washed when the streams begin to flow in the summer.

Petroleum and Natural Gas.—Another great source of wealth in this country is its vast supply of petroleum, or rock oil, which is found far below the surface. It is reached by boring deep wells, from which the oil flows or

is pumped up. Petroleum is abundant in Pennsylvania and some other States, and is much used for burning and other purposes. Many of these wells yield also large quantities of what is known as natural gas, which burns with a bright flame and great heat. It is used for lighting and warming houses and in factories, and is conveyed from the wells in pipes to distant towns and cities, where it takes the place of coal in manufactories.

Fish Culture.—The lakes and rivers of the United States, and the waters of the neighboring oceans, are rich in fishes, many of which are very valuable as food. But fishing has been so active and reckless that the supply is growing small, and there has long been danger that this great source of wealth would fail. This is prevented by what is known as fish culture. Every year many millions of fish-eggs are hatched out by artificial means and the young fish cared for until they are able to care for themselves. They are then placed in the open waters, and in a few years are large enough to catch. In this way the supply of fish is likely to be kept up, no matter how many may be caught in the fishermen's nets.

Education.—If we look for the causes of this great progress we shall find that one of the most important is education. The people of the United States are among the best educated on the face of the earth. In 1890 there were a great multitude of public schools in the country, with over twelve million pupils. There are now many more than this. Besides these, there are more than four hundred colleges and a very considerable number of private schools. Our people spend more for the support of their public schools than the people of all Europe. In this way we are being taught to use our brains as well as our hands, and it is this brain-work which keeps the country so active in every direction.

School-life is not ended when the school-term of the boy or girl is over. We go to school all our lives, and our education is all the time increasing. Newspapers and books constantly add to the learning gained in the school-house. There are now about twenty thousand newspapers and magazines in the United States, and there are enough newspapers printed every week to give one to every man, woman, and child in the country. Books are also printed in such numbers that every one can have all the reading he needs for very little money. A century ago many of the people could not get one new book a year. Many now get a new one almost every day.

Every city has its libraries, its art galleries, and other means for the higher education of the people. Education is spreading in new directions. Instruction in industry is one of the new ideas of the times. Children are being taught to draw and to use tools, and are thus being made fit for the business of life; for in life the body has to be used as well as the brain, and to make the best kind of a man the body and the brain of the child need to be educated together.

Benevolence.—Of one more thing we may speak. The people of the United States are developing in charity as well as in other directions. Everywhere we see hospitals, asylums, and homes which have been started by the money of rich people. Whenever a great fire takes place, or a great storm destroys farms and villages, the people give money freely to help the destitute. This is the best kind of progress. It is progress in that love for all mankind which was taught by Christ. Let us hope that it will grow and spread in this country, for in that way the people of America may be made the noblest and the happiest of all the people of the earth.

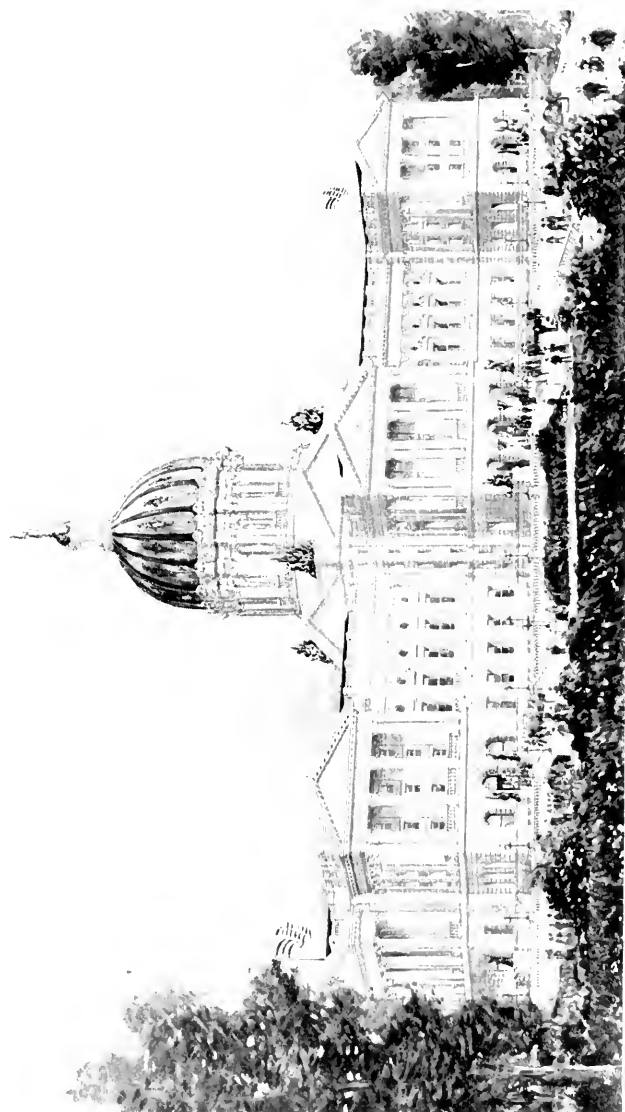
PART VIII.—QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

I. How many soldiers were in the Union army during the war? How many were there at the end of the war? About how many Confederate soldiers were there? How many were lost on each side? What was the United States debt at the end of the war? Where was most damage done? What was the condition of the South after the war? What of the North? What good was accomplished by the war? What is now thought of slavery in the South? What did the people think of Abraham Lincoln? How were they affected by his assassination? Who succeeded him as President? What was to be done? What is done by the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution? What by the Fourteenth? How did President Johnson deal with the laws passed by Congress on the subject of reconstruction? What did Congress do in consequence? What is meant by impeachment of a President? Before what court was he tried? What was the result of the trial? What is done by the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution? How did the seceded States act towards these amendments? When did the last of them come back into the Union? How were the Western Indians treated? What happened in consequence? What has been done with these Indians? What new territory was added to the United States in 1867? From whom was it purchased? What makes it valuable? What President was elected in 1868? How long did he remain President? What great fire took place in 1871? How much of the city was burned? What was the money loss? Where did great forest fires take place in the same year? In what other city did a great fire break out the next year? What was the loss? How did the people act after the fires? What is meant by the "Alabama claims"? Why did America blame England? How was it decided to settle the dispute? What sum was England required to pay? How are disputes between nations usually settled? What was the cause of the business panic of 1873? What effect did it have upon the country? How long did it take for business to recover from the panic? Where was a great exhibition held in 1876? Why? What did this exhibition teach our people? In what has great progress taken place since that time? Who were the candidates in the Presidential election of 1876? How was the dispute about the election settled? Who became President? When did gold come into use again as money? How long had the business of the country been done with paper money only? In what years was yellow fever an epidemic in the South? How did the North act? What effect had this on the feeling of the two sections? Who was elected President in 1880? What did he do about appointing men to office? What sort of men did this make angry? What

happened to the President? How long did he live afterwards? What was the feeling of the people? What is said about the telegraphic service? Who became President after Garfield's death? Who became President in 1885? By what party was he elected? Of what party were all the Presidents between 1861 and 1885? What terrible event happened in the South in 1886? What was the effect of the earthquake at Charleston? What was the loss? What have the working people done of recent years? When did the eight-hour strike take place in Chicago? What class of people took advantage of it? What was done by the anarchists when the police tried to break up their meeting? What effect did the bomb have? How were the anarchists punished? Describe the disaster at Johnstown, Pennsylvania. What was the purpose of the Pan-American Congress? What was the McKinley tariff? What is meant by reciprocity in trade? What was the effect of the reciprocity bill in America? What was the purpose of the silver bills? What took place in business affairs in 1893? What new States were admitted in 1889? What in 1890? What Territories remained? What victory did the Democratic party gain in 1890? What was the population of the United States in 1890? What is meant by the Copyright law? What changes were made in the pension list? What in the immigration laws? What trouble arose about the seal fisheries? Who were nominated for the Presidency in 1892? Who was elected President? What is meant by the American Quadricentennial? What celebrations took place? Describe the Columbian World's Fair.

II. How many soldiers were in arms at the end of the war? What would such an army have done in old times? What did the American army do? What was left of this great army after a year or two? How many soldiers are in our present army? For what are they used? What great event took place in 1866? What advantage do we get from the Atlantic cables? How many miles of telegraph line are there in the United States? How does this compare with the telegraphs of other countries? What is the purpose of the signal service? To whom is it of great use? In what ways is electricity used? What does the telephone enable men to do? What great feat in railroad building was finished in 1869? Describe the event of driving the last spike. What other Pacific railroads are there? How long does it take to go from New York to San Francisco? How long to Europe? How many miles of railroad are there in the United States at present? How does this compare with Europe and the world? How has it affected travel? In what other ways are the railroads useful? How many post-offices were there in the United States in 1790? How many are there now? How much faster are letters carried now than then? What was the rate of postage then? What is it now? What was the population then? What is it now? How many persons come here every year from Europe? What becomes of these people?

What people are prevented by law from coming to this country? Why? Is there any more fighting with the Indians? How are they cared for? What is proposed to be done with them? What means are taken to civilize them? In what way are the Indian schools useful? Which was the richest country in the world in 1880? Which is likely to be in 1890? What are important sources of the wealth of America? What other great source of wealth is there? What kinds of goods did we formerly get from abroad? What do we now send abroad? To what do we owe our great progress in manufacturing? How many patents have been granted in a single year? Do people have to work as hard as they did? What advance has been made in the art of printing? What was the condition of the South at the end of the war? What is its condition to-day? In what way is the country being developed? Where have great exhibitions been held? What will be the condition of the whole country in the time to come? What is one important cause of this great progress? How many schools were there in this country in 1880? How many pupils? How many colleges? How many newspapers and magazines are there at the present time? How many newspapers are printed each week? How have the number of books increased in this country? What other means of education have the cities? What new idea is there in education? What is said about benevolence in America? In what ways do people give money freely? What effect is progress in this direction likely to have upon the American people?



NEW STATE CAPITOL OF PENNSYLVANIA.

HISTORY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

I.—THE PERIOD OF SETTLEMENT.

The Natives.—When white men first came to the region now known as Pennsylvania, they found it occupied by several tribes of Indians. In the eastern part was a tribe whom they named Delawares, from the name given to the river on which they dwelt. Their native title was Lenni Lenape. Farther west, in the mountain country along the Susquehanna River, dwelt the Monseys or Wolf tribes, and in the north were a number of tribes known to the natives as Mingoës, but called by the French the Iroquois and by the English the Five Nations. The Delawares were not warlike. They had been conquered by the Mingoës, and could not go to war or make treaties without their consent. Thus the first whites had a peaceful people to deal with.

The Dutch Arrive.—In 1609, Captain Henry Hudson, sent by the Dutch to this country, sailed a short distance into Delaware Bay. From there he sailed to the Hudson River. The Dutch called this the North River and the Delaware the South River, and claimed as their own all the territory between them. In 1623, Captain Mey, who gave his name to Cape May (though time has made a change in the spelling), sailed up the South River and built a fort a few miles below the site of Philadelphia, near the present city of Gloucester, New Jersey. This

fort was soon abandoned, but in 1631 a Dutch settlement was made near the present site of Lewes, Delaware. It did not last long, its people quarrelling with the Indians, who killed them all within a year.

The Swedes.—The Dutch had at this time a thriving settlement at the mouth of the Hudson, and the King of Sweden thought that he would also like to possess a colony in America, so he sent out in 1638 two ship-loads of colonists. These crossed the ocean to the South River, up which they sailed, the Swedes being so pleased with the appearance of the surrounding country that they called it Paradise. Some of them settled near Brandywine Creek, others near Chester and Darby Creeks, and in 1642 Governor Printz built himself a mansion on Tinicum Island and made this the seat of government. A town was afterwards laid out on Chester Creek and named Upland (now Chester).

Other Swedes soon came and settled at various points along the river, some of them as far north as the site of Philadelphia. For defence against the Indians they built log forts or block-houses. But they were friendly and honest in their dealings with the natives and kept on good terms with them, so that there were no quarrels and the forts were not needed.

The Dutch Conquest.—The Dutch of New Amsterdam were not pleased with the coming of the Swedes. They claimed all the land along the Delaware as their own, and it was not long before they made war on the new settlers. In 1655 a Dutch fleet filled with soldiers sailed up the river, and all the Swedish forts were taken. But the private rights of the Swedes were not interfered with, and they remained on the land, though it was governed by the Dutch. A Swedish ship filled with colonists sailed up the river the

next year. The Dutch tried to stop it, but the Indians interfered in behalf of their friends the Swedes, and the ship was permitted to proceed. In it were some of the first settlers of Philadelphia.

The English Come.—Nine years after the Dutch came the English. They took possession of New Amsterdam and named it New York, and in 1664 they sailed up the Delaware and took the Dutch fort at New Castle. That was the last of Dutch rule in North America, except in the years 1673 and 1674, when, during a war between England and Holland, the latter country took and held for a time its old possessions. But the Dutch and the Swedes lived happily enough under English rule.

Naming the River.—The South River, as the Dutch called it, was named by the Swedes the New Swedeland River. The English, on gaining possession, called the river and bay by the name of Delaware, after Lord De la War, governor of Virginia, who had visited the bay many years before.

The Friends.—The religious sect known as the Friends, or Quakers, who had been cruelly treated in England, began about this time to look upon America as a place of refuge, and a number of them came over and settled in Western New Jersey, where William Penn and others had bought lands. George Fox, the founder of the society, visited them here in 1673. In 1675 some of them crossed the Delaware and settled near Upland. A few years afterwards, when they heard that William Penn had been granted the land west of the river, others crossed and sought homes and farms in the country near Upland.

William Penn.—The sect of the Friends was at first made up of the poor people of England, but some people of higher station soon joined it, among them William Penn, son of

Admiral Penn of the British navy. The young convert was a friend of the king, Charles II., and of his brother, the Duke of York, and had great influence at court, which he used for the benefit of the suffering Friends. His father had left him a large claim against the English government, and, as the king could not pay him the money, he asked for a grant of that tract of land in America which lay west of the Delaware River and between the provinces of Maryland and New York.

Penn's Grant.—This the king was very willing to give him. The patent for the grant was carefully written on parchment, and is still preserved, being kept in the executive chamber at Harrisburg. The land granted to Penn was to extend through five degrees of longitude, to be bounded on the east by the Delaware River, on the north by the forty-third degree of north latitude, and on the south by the arc of a circle beginning on the river twelve miles north of New Castle and drawn westward to the beginning of the fortieth degree of north latitude, which it was to follow to the western boundary.

The Southern Boundary.—The terms of this grant afterwards led to a dispute with Lord Baltimore. The curved line to be drawn twelve miles from New Castle would lie a number of miles south of the fortieth parallel of latitude, which runs near Philadelphia. Penn claimed that the fortieth degree began as soon as the thirty-ninth was passed. Lord Baltimore claimed that his grant extended to the fortieth parallel. The one claim would have placed Philadelphia on the southern border of the State, the other would have placed the border nearly seventy miles south of that city, as far south as Baltimore. The dispute was not settled till 1761, when the English courts fixed the line midway between the thirty-ninth and fortieth parallels. Two Eng-

lish engineers, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, then surveyed and marked out the boundary line. It is still known as Mason and Dixon's line.

The Coming of the People.—The grant was signed by Charles II. on March 4, 1681, the new province being named by him Pennsylvania, or Penn's Woodland. As soon as news of what had been done reached America, a number of Friends crossed from New Jersey to the new province, being joyful to learn that they had a home prepared for them under a wise and just member of their own society.

William Markham, Penn's cousin, was made deputy-governor, and reached Pennsylvania in June, 1681. A court was held at Upland in September, one of whose first acts was to forbid the sale of intoxicating liquors to the Indians. It was known that such sale was likely to cause trouble and perhaps lead to bloodshed. Three ships loaded with emigrants left England that year, in one of which came the commissioners who were to examine the land and the river and choose a suitable spot for the city which Penn proposed to found. He gave orders that the houses of this city should be built in the middle of large plots, "that there may be ground on each side for gardens, or orchards, or fields, that it may be a green country town which will never be burnt and always wholesome."

The Site of Philadelphia.—He also sent messages of good will to the Indians, which they received with joy, for they wished to dwell in peace with the whites. In 1682 there were about two thousand white people in the province, mostly Swedes. At Wicaco, on the site of Philadelphia, was a Swedish church, which had been built as a block-house in 1669. There was a Friends' meeting-house at Shackamaxon (afterwards Kensington). These buildings

were on the ground which the commissioners selected for the site of the new city, its location, between the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers, seeming very suitable for the purpose. For this city Penn had selected the name of Philadelphia, or "Brotherly love," hoping to make it a home of kindly feeling, honor, and justice.

Penn's Arrival.—On the 30th of August, 1682, William Penn left England in the ship *Welcome*, and reached the town of New Castle on October 27. About one hundred emigrants sailed with him, but thirty of them died of small-pox on the voyage. He reached Upland probably on the 28th. It is said that on seeing it he turned to his friend



LANDING OF WILLIAM PENN AT CHESTER.

Pearson and asked, "What wilt thou that I should call this place?" Pearson answered, "Chester," the name of the English town from which he had come. Some writers say that this story is doubtful, but it is certain that Penn named the place Chester, its good old name of Upland being lost.

The new owner of the province at once called a court, to meet at New Castle on November 2. Here the claims of

the people to their lands were made good, and they were told that they should be governed by laws of their own making. It is proper to state that the territory now known as the State of Delaware, claimed by the Duke of York, the brother of the king, had been sold by him to Penn, who thus owned all the land on the west side of the Delaware River. It is not known on what day Penn went to Philadelphia. There is a tradition that he went there from Chester in an open boat with some friends. We know that he was there on the 8th of November, 1682.

Treaty with the Indians.—We are told that the proprietor made himself very friendly to the Indians, walking and sitting with them and eating some of their roasted acorns and hominy. When they began to show how they could hop and jump, he won their respect by showing them that he could do better than the best of them at this exercise. Soon after he made a treaty with them, to which the different tribes sent delegates, and in which it was agreed that “The Indians and the English will live in love as long as the sun and moon shall endure.” Tradition says that this treaty was made under a great elm-tree at Shackamaxon, which was blown down by a storm in 1810. There is now a monument on the spot, with a small park around it.

Laying Out the City and Province.—The new city was laid out with streets crossing at right angles, those running north and south being named Front, Second, etc., those running westward from the Delaware being named Chestnut, Walnut, Spruce, etc., after the forest-trees. Midway between the rivers ran a wide street named Broad Street, and midway in the other direction a wide street named High (now Market) Street. Where these two streets crossed a public square was laid out. It was known as Centre, and afterwards as Penn, Square, but is now occu-

pied by the Philadelphia City Hall. The province was divided into three counties, Philadelphia, Chester, and Bucks. The territory of Delaware was also laid out in three counties. Several Swedes had farms on the site of Philadelphia, but Penn paid them for their lands, as he also paid the Indians for all lands taken from them. No land was occupied by him without the consent of the owners.

The First Assembly.—The new proprietor did not propose to make laws for the people. He had promised them a free government by their own representatives, and at once ordered an election to take place. The delegates elected met at Chester on December 4, 1682, and formed there the first legislative assembly of Pennsylvania. This assembly was in session three days, in which it passed “The Great Law,” a system of government which Penn had carefully prepared. This gave the people the right to make their own laws, all who believed in the Deity the right to worship as they pleased, and all tax-payers the right to vote and hold office, and forbade swearing, blasphemy, gambling, play-acting, and drunkenness under penalty of fine and imprisonment. Prisons were declared to be work-houses, where felons were to be reformed and taught some useful trade. This was a great improvement on the English prisons of that time.

Courts were also provided for, and a council which was to assist the governor in the discharge of his duties. The council had no share in the making of the laws, its powers being confined to putting them in force. Pennsylvania thus had a single law-making body, while each of the other colonies had two. At the first session of the council, in March, 1683, it tried a woman for witchcraft, the only case of this kind ever tried in Pennsylvania. The accused was declared not guilty.

New Settlers Arrive.—In August, 1683, Penn wrote home that there were about eighty houses already in the city. In October a colony of Germans arrived and founded the village of Germantown, six miles from Philadelphia. Some of these lived for a time in caves which the first settlers had dug for homes along the river bank. A Welsh settlement had been made in 1682. The Welsh were not liked by the English, and were not welcomed in Philadelphia. They went back into the wilderness and founded the townships of Merion and Haverford, now parts of Montgomery and Chester Counties. Many Friends came from England and settled at Philadelphia, Chester, Darby, and along the Delaware River as far up as the falls.

When Penn set out for home, which was on the 12th of August, 1684, the province is said to have had about seven thousand inhabitants, of whom twenty-five hundred were in Philadelphia, which was then a city of over three hundred houses and with many ships sailing to foreign ports. The people were made up of Swedes, Finns, Dutch, English, Welsh, and Germans, to whom were soon added Scotch, Irish, and French. The last named were Huguenots, or Protestants, who had fled from religious persecution at home, as had also many of the Germans.

A large body of Swiss Mennonites came in 1709, also on account of religious persecution. They settled at first in Germantown, but in 1712 formed a settlement at Pequea, Lancaster County. This was a beautiful and fertile valley, and many Germans afterwards came there. Before 1727 there were nearly fifty thousand settlers in Pennsylvania, very many of whom were Germans, and the settlements extended as far west as the Susquehanna and its tributaries.

II.—THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROVINCE.

Disputes in the Assembly.—After Penn went home disputes arose between the assembly and the council. The members from Delaware (then known as the Territories) also quarrelled with those from the province, and in 1691 they withdrew and the people of the Territories elected an assembly of their own. Penn gave them a separate governor, so that there were now two assemblies and two deputy-governors. They were united again by Governor Fletcher in 1693, but finally separated in 1702, Delaware then becoming an independent province, though both remained under one governor until 1776.

Penn arrested.—Meanwhile, there were troublous times in England. King Charles died in 1685, and the Duke of York became king as James II., but he proved so great a tyrant that the people rebelled and drove him from the kingdom in 1688, and William, Prince of Orange, became king. William Penn had been a friend of King James, and was arrested for treason in 1692 and his province taken from him and placed under Governor Fletcher of New York. This governor acted like a tyrant, and the people were very glad when they heard in 1694 that Penn had been cleared of the charge of treason and his province restored to him.

The Proprietor returns.—It was not until 1699 that the proprietor was able to return to his province. He had been detained by difficulties and misfortunes in England, and came back to find the people in trouble and dismay. That dreadful scourge, the yellow fever, had broken out, and many of them had died. But they were cheered by the coming among them of their true friend, and the assembly was at once called to meet in Philadelphia and revise the laws of which complaints had been made.

Slave-holding.—One question to be dealt with was that of slavery. Penn had found slaves in the province in 1682, and made no objection to their presence. The Germans of Germantown protested against slave-holding in 1688, but it was not until 1696 that the Friends took any steps to check it. A bill for the abolition of slavery was brought before the assembly in 1699, but the only action taken was to give the slaves the benefit of a legal trial when charged with wrong-doing. An effort was made to stop the sale of liquor to the Indians, but the frontiersmen could not be controlled and the sale went on.

Penn's Return to England.—Penn now proposed to make Pennsylvania his future home, a mansion having been built for him at Pennsbury on the Delaware, about twenty-five miles above Philadelphia. He moved thither in 1700. But news came from England that there was a bill before Parliament for the purpose of doing away with proprietary governments in America and placing all the provinces under the king. He felt it necessary to go back to defend his rights, and did so in 1701, after first granting the people a new constitution in which they gained an increase of power. The new charter made Philadelphia a corporate city, Edward Shippen being chosen as its first mayor.

War Troubles; Governor Evans's Scheme.—The next event of importance in the history of Pennsylvania arose from what is known as Queen Anne's War, in which the French and Indians of Canada made attacks upon the English colonies. There were two parties now in the province, the Friends and some sects of the Germans, who were opposed to war, and those of other beliefs, who thought that money and men should be provided for defence against the enemy.

The peace party was the strongest in the assembly and

council, but the governor was opposed to it and raised a company of soldiers. Governor Hamilton died in 1703 and was succeeded by John Evans, who also favored war, but who turned the people against him by playing a trick upon them. On the day of the annual fair in Philadelphia, when the streets were filled with people from the country, a messenger came in great haste from New Castle and said that Spanish ships were in the river and would soon attack the city.

Governor Evans now mounted his horse and rode at full speed through the streets, sword in hand, calling on the people to arm for defence. His action threw the city into panic and confusion, the shipping was hurried away up the river, articles of value were hidden, and for some hours everybody was in dismay. Then word came that the report was false, and the people grew as angry as they had been frightened. The governor and his friends for a time were in danger. The alarm did not disturb the Friends, who were gathered for worship in their meeting-house, and went on with their religious exercises as if nothing out of the usual course was taking place. The quarrel with the governor continued until 1709, when William Penn felt it necessary to remove him and appoint another in his place.

The Quarrel ended.—The war continued, and the new governor demanded means of defence. War-ships of the enemy had appeared at the mouth of Delaware Bay, but the Indians were friendly and the assembly could not be moved from the policy of peace and good will held by William Penn and the Friends. No soldiers were provided, but two thousand pounds were voted for the use of the queen, to be raised by a tax on the people. This act restored harmony, and for a time the disputes between the governor and the assembly ceased.

Acts of the Law-Makers.—In 1712 the assembly passed an act seeking to put an end to the trade in slaves. Bills were also passed laying heavy duties on rum, whiskey, and other spirits, fixing the value of coin, and establishing courts of justice. All these acts were declared of no effect by the English government, much to the displeasure of the colonists, who felt that they were being deprived of their rights and privileges.

Other difficulties soon arose. Queen Anne died in 1714, and a new king, George I., was crowned. At once an old law was revived which forbade Quakers to give evidence in criminal cases, to serve on juries, or to hold any office of profit. An attempt was made to apply this to Pennsylvania, where all the offices were filled by people of that sect. A strong protest was made by the assembly, and a contest began which was kept up for ten years. At length, in 1725, the law was withdrawn so far as regarded Pennsylvania, through an act passed by the assembly which was accepted by the king.

A Friendly Governor.—The colonists were greatly pleased to have won this victory over their enemies. They were also much pleased with a new governor, Sir William Keith, who came to Philadelphia in 1717 and showed himself the friend of the people. For almost the first time since William Penn had gone home, the assembly, council, and governor ceased to quarrel with one another.

Death of Penn.—In 1718 William Penn died. The news of his death was received with deep sorrow in the province, and the Indians also showed grief at the loss of the “great and good *Onas*.” Mrs. Penn acted as proprietor for her sons, all of whom were under age, while Governor Keith continued at the head of affairs. Harmony prevailed in the government, the people devoted themselves to trade and to

the improvement of their farms, and for years all went happily on.

Increase of Population.—The province of Pennsylvania had now become the most popular and prosperous of the American colonies, and new immigrants came in such numbers, mostly from Germany, that the Friends became alarmed. They feared that Pennsylvania would have so many “foreigners” that it would cease to be an English colony. Acts were passed to refuse these strangers the rights of citizens and to lay a special tax on them, and it was long before these unwise discriminations were removed.

Benjamin Franklin.—In 1723, near the end of Governor Keith’s administration, Benjamin Franklin came from Boston to Philadelphia. He was then a boy of seventeen, but was in the future to become the ablest and most useful citizen of his new place of residence.

A New County formed.—There were still only three counties in the province. The farmers beyond the Conestoga and along the Susquehanna were in Chester County, and had to go to the court-house at Chester, nearly a hundred miles away, for jury and other duties. On this account a new county was formed in 1729, which was named Lancaster. The town of Lancaster was laid out in 1730. The people in this section were largely Germans, though there were also English, Scotch, Irish, and Welsh. Nearly all had been persecuted at home for their religious faith, and were strongly in favor of freedom of conscience in their new homes. Some alarm was caused by the building of a Roman Catholic chapel in Philadelphia in 1733, but the Catholics were not disturbed in their religious worship.

A Border War.—The dispute which had long existed concerning the boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland led in 1736 to acts of violence. The Germans

who had taken up land beyond the Susquehanna at first believed that their farms were in Maryland. About this time they changed their opinion and declared themselves to be citizens of Pennsylvania. As a result the sheriff of Baltimore County marched with three hundred men to drive them out. But the sheriff of Lancaster County called out a strong force to resist this invasion, and the Marylanders thought it wise to retire.

Shortly afterwards a lawless band crossed the borders from Maryland with the purpose of driving away the Germans and seizing their lands. The sheriff of Lancaster met them with a force of citizens, and a sharp fight took place, one man being killed, and Thomas Cressap, the leader of the invaders, wounded and taken prisoner.

The petty war was kept up for about a year, a number of Germans were seized and taken to Baltimore as hostages for Cressap, and citizens of both sides were wounded and captured in the conflicts that took place. Finally, in 1737, an order came from the king that the governors should keep peace on the border until the boundary line had been fixed.

The First Centennial.—The hundredth anniversary of the settlement of the Swedes on the Delaware came in 1738. The colony of William Penn was then fifty-seven years old. It had more white inhabitants than any other province except Maryland, Virginia, and Massachusetts. Its capital city was next to Boston in population, and soon after became the largest in the colonies. The fertility of the soil, the mildness of the climate, the liberality of the laws, had brought settlers in large numbers from various countries. The just treatment of the Indians had kept them friendly, and there were no fears of savage massacres. Peace and prosperity prevailed, and for years all went well

with Pennsylvania and its people. The trade of Philadelphia grew until its shipping amounted to six thousand tons, the produce of the farm, dairy, orchard, and forest being exported in large quantities. Thomas and John Penn, two



OLD SWEDEN'S CHURCH.

of William's sons, came to Pennsylvania in 1732, and were gladly welcomed by the people. John soon returned, but Thomas remained until 1741.

The Walking Purchase.—In 1737 a great fraud upon the Indians was consummated, which made many of them enemies of the whites. An old deed provided for a purchase of land from the tribes to be measured by a line starting at Wrightstown—a few miles back from the Delaware above Trenton—and running northwest parallel with the river as far as a man could walk in a day and a half. From the end

of the walk a line was to be drawn to the Delaware, and the purchase was to include all between these lines and the river.

The Indians did not look for anything but an ordinary walk, but the governor had the line surveyed in advance and the trees marked, so that the walkers could follow a straight line without losing time, and selected some of the best walkers in the province for the task. The Indians who came as watchers had to run to keep up with them, and near the end of the first day they withdrew in disgust, finding that they were being cheated.

They understood that the Lehigh River would be the limit of the walk, but it extended thirty miles beyond that river, and the line drawn to the Delaware was not made direct, but was slanted upward for a long distance, so as to include the valuable Minisink country. It was this country that the governor was trying to secure.

The Indians refused to leave the Minisink lands, and deputies from the Iroquois of New York, to whom they were vassals, were called in to make them leave. They did so when ordered by their conquerors, but from this time on they hated the English, and when the war with the French broke out they revenged themselves on the settlers. Hatred had made them warriors again. This fraud was probably due to Thomas Penn, who was then in the country, and who afterwards showed a grasping spirit in his dealings with the settlers.*

* It is stated that this walking purchase was the completion of a purchase made by William Markham in 1682, providing for a tract extending as far as a man could walk in three days, the line to begin at the mouth of the Neshaminy and extend northwestward. It is said that Penn, with some of his friends and a number of chiefs, began this walk, and continued it leisurely for a day and a half, proceeding for a distance of about thirty miles, when Penn stopped, saying that he had all the land he then wanted. At its completion in 1737 the walk covered eighty-six miles.

Threats of War.—The peaceful condition of the province came to an end in 1739. War was declared between England and Spain, and the colonies were required to put themselves in a state of defence. Governor Thomas, who had been appointed in 1738, was ignorant of the kind of people he had to deal with, and ordered them to prepare for possible war. The Friends, who formed the majority of the assembly, refused, and a bitter dispute arose between the governor and the legislators. Finally the governor asked for money instead of soldiers, and this was at once granted.

The Redemptioners.—Governor Thomas now organized seven companies of militia. Among his recruits were many of those known as "Redemptioners,"—poor persons whose passage across the ocean had been paid for them, and who had agreed to work a certain number of years for their benefactors. Those who enlisted did so under promise of being set free from these labor contracts.

The assembly asked the governor to pay the farmers who had in this way lost their servants for the time still due. This he unjustly refused to do. The result was one of the most violent party contests ever known in Pennsylvania.

Political Disputes.—Two parties arose, one taking the side of the governor, the other that of the assembly. The governor refused to approve the bills passed by the assembly, which, in return, refused to order the payment of his salary. Finally the quarrel became so severe that the assembly adjourned without having passed any of the necessary bills. Governor Thomas then, in revenge, removed from office all the judges, sheriffs, etc., who were on the side of his opponents.

The Parties.—The term of service of the members of

the assembly had expired, and a new election was ordered. A bitter contest was expected. The "Gentlemen's party," which supported the governor, had its chief strength in the city. The other, which was strongest in the country, was known as the "Quaker, or Country party." Both parties tried to win the favor of the Germans, who formed an important section of the farming population near the city.

The Election Riot.—On the morning of October 1, 1739, members of both parties gathered about the polls, which were opened for the whole city and county of Philadelphia at the court-house on Market Street. The farming people were present in force, and were evidently on the side of the assembly. On the other side appeared a gang of sailors from the ships in the harbor, who had been engaged by the governor's party to drive their opponents from the polls.

A disgraceful riot now took place. The sailors marched through the streets and attacked the country-people with clubs, knocking down all who did not run away. Even the magistrates who tried to check the riot were attacked. This done, the sailors went away, but they came back as soon as the polls were opened, stationed themselves on the stairs leading to the ballot-box, and drove away all of the other party who came to vote.

This did not last long. Though the Friends would not fight, the German farmers soon got tired of being knocked down, seized what weapons they could find, and made a fierce attack upon the sailors, whom they drove from the stairs. Fifty of them were captured and put in jail. The others fled to their ships, and took care not to show themselves in the streets again that day.

End of the Quarrel.—Thus ended the first election riot in Pennsylvania. At the polls the Country party won, and the members of the old assembly were re-elected. Gover-

nor Thomas, finding himself defeated, offered a compromise, which was accepted. The masters were paid for the loss of their servants, and the assembly voted a donation of about six thousand pounds towards the expenses of the war.

The Militia called Out.—In 1744 a new war broke out, this time with the French. Benjamin Franklin wrote and published a pamphlet called “Plain Truth,” in which he showed the need of union and discipline. The governor commanded all able-bodied men to provide arms and train as militia, and in a short time ten thousand men were organized and armed. Franklin was chosen as colonel of the Philadelphia regiment, but declined the honor, as he thought that he would be of more use as a private citizen.

Other Measures for Defence.—In order to provide funds to build a battery below the city Franklin devised a lottery, for which he obtained contributions from many of the Friends, who, while not willing to fight, did not object to measures of self-defence. The Indians on the border had been roused to anger by the acts of traders, who made them drunk and then cheated them out of the true value of their furs. They also remembered how they had been wronged in the walking purchase, and showed signs of hostility, but they were quieted by the efforts of the governors of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, who gave them valuable presents and promised them protection.

The king had determined on an invasion of Canada, and the colonies were called upon for aid. The Pennsylvania assembly voted five thousand pounds, with which two companies were organized and sent to Albany, where they were kept guarding the frontier for a year and a half. Peace was signed in 1748.

New Counties.—Up to 1749 there were but four counties in Pennsylvania, Lancaster County including all the

western part of the province. But there was now a considerable population west of the Susquehanna, made up of English, Germans, and Scotch-Irish people, and in 1749 a new county, named York, was formed. In 1750 Cumberland County was laid out, and from that time on new counties were added with some frequency as the population increased.

Captain Jack.—In Cumberland County dwelt a noted character called Captain Jack, the “wild hunter of the Juniata.” His family had been murdered by Indians, after which he lived in a cave and devoted himself to revenge upon the savages. In time he formed a band of hunters, who spent their time in protecting the frontier. He offered the services of his band to General Braddock, saying that they were “regardless of heat and cold. They require no shelter for the night; they ask no pay.”

New Settlements.—The town of Easton was laid out about 1738, York in 1741, Reading in 1748, and Carlisle about 1750. The Christian Indian settlements of Nazareth and Bethlehem were established about 1740, under the care of Moravian missionaries. Settlements were extending widely over the west and north, following the river valleys, in which the pioneers often took possession of Indian lands which had not yet been purchased. This, added to the other acts of deceit we have named, went far to break the good relations which had so far existed with the natives.

Indian Councils.—Councils with the Indians were often held, in which their favor was obtained by valuable presents. Easton became a common place for these councils after 1754, there being sometimes present from two hundred to five hundred chiefs and many of the leading men of the province. Frequent complaints were made by the natives, in order that they might have new councils and new presents,

and this in time became so expensive that the people asked the proprietors to share part of the cost. The Penns refused and a strong party grew up against them, Benjamin Franklin being one of their opponents. It is well to state at this point that the sons of William Penn were not Friends like their father, but had joined the Church of England.

III.—WAR WITH THE FRENCH AND INDIANS.

In 1754 war broke out between the French and English colonists in America. The general events of that war in Pennsylvania are described on pages 102 to 107 of the preceding "History of the United States." Here we need to speak only of some particular events.

Franklin's Services.—Benjamin Franklin took an active part in the war. In 1754 he drew up a plan for a union of the colonies. This was offered to a convention at Albany, but was not accepted by the country or the king. When General Braddock came to America with his troops there was much surprise that he did not land at Philadelphia. In Virginia he was able to obtain only twenty-five wagons, but Franklin told him that Pennsylvania would supply him with all he needed, and in less than two weeks he had ready for him one hundred and fifty wagons and two hundred and fifty horses. In paying for these he gave two hundred pounds of his own money, and gave his bond to pay the full value of any horses that might be lost. The farmers did not care to trust the British general, but were quite ready to trust Franklin.

The Indian Raids.—The defeat of Braddock that followed was a serious event for the frontier settlers. No sooner had the army retreated than the savage allies of the French attacked the farmers in the border settlements. Many of them were killed, others taken prisoners, their cattle and

grain taken away or destroyed, their dwellings burned. Several thriving settlements were ruined, and in some places the whole country was laid waste.

Political Quarrels.—This terrible state of affairs was partly due to a quarrel between the governor and the assembly. The governor would not sign the bill to provide money for the defence of the colonies, because it laid a share of the tax on the land of the proprietaries. For weeks they kept up the quarrel, while the savage foe was murdering the inhabitants.

The people at length grew so indignant that a body of about four hundred Germans marched into Philadelphia and demanded that the assembly and the governor should act at once for the public relief. About the same time the proprietaries sent an order that five thousand pounds should be appropriated on their account to the use of the colony. This stopped the quarrel for the time, a liberal sum being voted by the assembly and a bill passed for the enlistment of soldiers.

Franklin on the Frontier.—The governor asked Franklin to take charge of the protection of the frontier, and he at once went to work for that purpose. There were no experienced military men in Pennsylvania, but it was thought that Franklin could do everything well. Five hundred men were collected at Bethlehem, where the Moravians built a strong stockade and gathered a supply of arms. They even carried stones into their houses for the women to throw upon the heads of enemies. A military post was built farther up the Lehigh, and in the freezing January weather Franklin began to erect forts and block-houses along the Kittatinny Mountains. This chain of forts, beginning on the Delaware, was drawn during 1756 around the edge of the settled country towards the border of Mary-

land. It was not of much use in keeping back the enemy, who slipped between the forts and massacred people fifty miles within their line.

Franklin was engaged about two months in this service, when he gave up his command to Colonel Clapham, a New England officer, who knew the art of fighting Indians, and returned to Philadelphia, where he was elected colonel of a new regiment.

The Friends seek Peace.—While the Indian massacres were going on, the leading Friends were seeking to restore peace with the natives. Some friendly Indians were sent to the hostile tribes to tell them that the brethren of Penn, their great friend, were anxious that they should live together in peace and harmony as of old. This many of the Delawares and Shawanese* agreed to, and peace was established with them.

The Hostile Indians.—But some of the chiefs of the Delawares were bitterly hostile, and would not join their tribe in its treaty of peace with the whites. They took part with the western Indians, who were under the influence of the French, and were stirred up by them to deeds of bloodshed. From their station at Kittanning, on the Alleghany River, these Indians destroyed settlements numbering many thousand inhabitants, the people being killed, captured, or driven across the Susquehanna.

The Assault on Kittanning.—Governor Morris determined to destroy this Indian village, and sent against it a force of three hundred men, under Colonel Armstrong. They succeeded in approaching the village without being observed, and came within sight of it on the morning of

* Shawanese Indians from Carolina had settled along the Susquehanna in 1698.

September 8, 1756. The warriors had been engaged in a war-dance, and many of them had lain down to sleep in a cornfield near by. They were suddenly aroused by rifle-shots, by which part of them were killed and the rest put to flight.

The village was next attacked, and here the natives defended themselves desperately, firing upon their assailants from the shelter of their wigwams. Colonel Armstrong ordered his men to set fire to these, and the village was soon in a sheet of flame, while the powder-barrels in the wigwams frequently exploded, throwing the bodies of their defenders into the air. Soon the village was in ashes and all that lived of its defenders were in full flight. This severe lesson put an end for a considerable time to the Indian raids, and many of the settlers returned to their farms.

March of General Forbes.—The end of the war in Pennsylvania came in 1758, General Forbes being sent against Fort Duquesne with an army of about eight thousand men. Colonel Bouquet led the advance, and sustained a fierce attack from the French and Indians. But they had not now a Braddock to deal with, and were driven back with great loss.

General Forbes, however, marched so slowly, wasting time in cutting new roads through the mountain passes, that winter was close at hand before he came near the fort, and he would have given up the expedition had not Washington, who was with him, induced him to go on. Some scouts who had been captured had revealed the fact that the fort was poorly defended, and Washington pushed forward rapidly with his regiment, reaching it on November 25. He found that the French had set it on fire and fled down the Ohio.

Building of Fort Pitt.—Orders were given to rebuild the

fort and make it stronger than before. It was named Fort Pitt, after the great English statesman who had managed the war during its later years. The city of Pittsburg afterwards arose at the locality, and in time became the second city in population and manufactures in the State.

Franklin Serves the People.—In 1756 a new governor, William Denny, was sent to Pennsylvania. The assembly was glad to get rid of Governor Morris, but soon found Governor Denny as hard to deal with. In fact, the governors were only agents for the Penns, and could not act as they wished. Denny had orders to veto all laws to tax the estates of the proprietaries or in any way to reduce their power and privileges. His effort to carry out these orders soon brought on the old quarrel, and in 1758 Franklin was sent to London as the agent of the people. After much trouble he succeeded in showing the king's ministers the true state of affairs, and had a bill passed allowing the taxation of the estates of the Penns and confirming all that the assembly claimed to be the just rights of the people of the province.

The Pontiac War.—For a brief period after the building of Fort Pitt the country was at peace and the Indians were quiet. But in 1763 a new war broke out under the Indian chief Pontiac. The frontiers of Pennsylvania were again wasted with fire and sword, several forts were taken and their garrisons murdered, and the greatest suffering prevailed. Fort Pitt was besieged by a host of savages, who cut it off from the settlements.

Colonel Bouquet's Victory.—Troops were soon in the field and marching to the west. Colonel Armstrong, the hero of Kittanning, again attacked and destroyed an Indian village. But the decisive battle of the war was fought by Colonel Bouquet, who was attacked by the savages while on his way to relieve Fort Pitt.

His road led through a narrow and dangerous ravine, several miles long. This he proposed to pass in the night, but just before reaching it he was met by a large body of Indians and a desperate struggle began. The savages had left Fort Pitt for the attack, hoping to repeat their experience with Braddock. Until sunset the soldiers fought against a concealed enemy, and the next morning the assault was renewed. The soldiers, drawn up in a circle, defended themselves bravely, but they were suffering from thirst and were in imminent danger of defeat and destruction.

Fortunately, the colonel was an old Indian fighter. Two of his companies were withdrawn from his small force and ordered to make a show of retreat. The Indians were deceived. Fancying that a real retreat had begun, they set up the yell of triumph, broke from the woods, and rushed upon the weakened line. Suddenly they were met with a sharp fire upon their flank. The retreating companies had wheeled round the circle of the troops and made a sharp attack. The Indians gave way, and as they fled were assailed by two other companies, who had slipped out from the other side of the circle. The whole force now rushed upon the enemy with such vigor as to scatter them in defeat through the woods. Fort Pitt was relieved, the savages not returning to the siege.

The Lancaster Outrage.—A sad event soon after took place. There had been some murders in Lancaster County, and certain people fancied that these had been done by some Christian Indians near the town of Lancaster. The Indian settlement was attacked by a party calling themselves Paxton Rangers, and the six people found there were brutally murdered. The people of Lancaster placed the others in the prison for safety, but the rangers rode into the town on Sunday morning, while the people were at

church, broke into the jail, and killed the Indians, fourteen in all. A proclamation was issued by the governor for the arrest of the murderers, but none of them were brought to justice, they being supported by public sentiment.

The March upon Philadelphia.—In fact, a party of their sympathizers soon after broke into insurrection and marched upon Philadelphia, whither one hundred and forty Christian Indians had been brought from the Moravian settlements for safety. The alarmed authorities sent these Indians to New York, but the governor of that province would not receive them, and the governor of New Jersey refused them a refuge in his province, so that they had to be brought back to Philadelphia.

The backwoodsmen, who had set out in January, 1764, from five hundred to fifteen hundred strong, as variously estimated, at length reached Germantown, where they encamped. They found the people of Philadelphia ready for them, and did not think it wise to venture further. The city was guarded by soldiers and artillery, and the quarters of the Indians were fortified with earthworks and cannon. Commissioners were sent to meet the invaders, Franklin among them, and they were easily induced to withdraw. Only one of their requests was granted, that a bounty should be offered for Indian scalps. This was not a very humane end to Penn's Indian policy of good will.

IV.—THE PERIOD OF REVOLUTION.

The close of the war with the French and Indians was quickly followed by troubles with the British government, leading to war and independence. In these events, which affected the entire country, Pennsylvania took a prominent part.

The Stamp Act.—As soon as news came of the passage

of the Stamp Act, in 1765, the assembly passed resolutions declaring that none but their own representatives had the right to tax Americans, and making a strong protest against taxation by the British Parliament. On the 5th of October the stamps were brought in a ship to Philadelphia. At once all flags were put at half-mast, bells were muffled, and the city seemed to go into mourning. Meetings were held at which business men resolved not to use stamps, and to do no business with England until the law should be repealed.

The Stamp Act was to go into effect November 1, 1765. On the preceding day all the newspapers appeared with heavy black lines, as if in mourning, and no more papers were issued for twenty-one days. All the public offices were closed, and no business was done in them till the next May, when word came that the law was repealed. The loss of business had made it a costly experiment to Great Britain.

Joy at the Repeal.—The news of the repeal was greeted with joy in Philadelphia. The city was illuminated, bonfires were kindled, and a gold lace hat was presented to the captain of the vessel that brought the good tidings. The king's birthday was celebrated by a public dinner on the banks of the Schuylkill. During this period John Penn, grandson of William Penn, was governor of Pennsylvania.

The Tax on Tea.—The joy of the people did not last long. A tax was soon after laid by Parliament on tea, glass, paper, and some other articles.* But, as the people would not use

* It was at this time that John Dickinson, of Philadelphia, wrote his famous "Farmer's Letters," which first awoke the people to the full meaning of the acts of Parliament. He professed to have a small farm on the Delaware, and to be content with his lot, though he feared that British taxation would soon affect his fortunes. He went on to tell his readers what a loss of their liberty would follow the tax on paper and glass, if they sub-

these articles, all the taxes were removed in 1770, except a small one on tea. Ships laden with tea were sent to America, but no city would receive it. The ships which came to the Delaware were warned not to try to land their cargoes, and so returned to England. In Boston the tea was thrown overboard.

First Continental Congress.—This treatment of his tea made King George so angry that he took steps which were sure to lead to war. Large meetings were held in Philadelphia to sympathize with Boston, whose business the king had ruined,* and a convention met July 15, 1774, which passed a resolution to call a congress of the colonies, declaring that the rights of the people were in danger. Other colonies took similar action, and the First Continental Congress met in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia, September 5, 1774.†

Enlistments.—As soon as the news of the battle of Lexington reached Philadelphia, a meeting was held and steps were taken to enlist soldiers. It was not long before a large force was under arms. John Penn, the governor, lost his authority, a "Committee of Safety" being appointed by the assembly to control all public affairs.

Friends and Mennonites.—The authorities had a delicate

mitted to it. Some years afterwards (in 1775) another stirring work came from Philadelphia, Thomas Paine's "Common Sense," which went far to convert the people's minds from insurrection to revolution. These were the two great appeals to the people of the Revolutionary period.

* In May, 1774, Paul Revere rode from Boston to Philadelphia, sent thither by the leaders to persuade the Pennsylvanians to take part in the resistance to British oppression. He was well received, and returned with messages of encouragement.

† For the acts of this Congress, and of the Second Continental Congress, which met in the State House at Philadelphia, May 10, 1775, see pages 121, 127, and 129 of the preceding "History of the United States."

task to perform. Both the Friends and the German Mennonites were forbidden by their religion to bear arms. The Mennonites were willing to pay taxes "to feed the hungry and give the thirsty drink," but the Friends said that they could not do anything in aid of war. They were, however, induced to contribute money for the public defence.

Pennsylvania a State.—In July, 1776, a convention was held which declared Pennsylvania to be free from the power of kings and proprietors and to be an independent State. At that time it had a population of over three hundred thousand, of whom more than ten thousand were in the field as soldiers, while every county had its militia force. There was a navy of fifteen ships and a number of smaller vessels. The iron foundries of the State were casting cannon and balls for the army, and forts and floating batteries were provided for the defence of the capital city of the new commonwealth.

Washington's Retreat.—The war, which began at Boston and then came to New York, reached Pennsylvania in December, 1776, when Washington's small army crossed the Delaware and stationed itself along the river to protect the State from the enemy. There were less than three thousand men in the army; they were suffering from cold and hunger; all hope was gone; Congress left hastily for Baltimore, in fear that Philadelphia would be taken; the revolution was at its lowest ebb.

Aid to the Army.—But the people of Pennsylvania came nobly to Washington's aid. The farmers brought food, the townsmen brought clothing and medicines to the camp. Fifteen hundred men joined the army, making it strong enough for Washington's great Christmas night exploit, when he crossed the Delaware and captured the British force at Trenton.

Pennsylvania Invaded.—The invasion of Pennsylvania, thus averted, took place in 1777, when the British army was transported on ships from New York to Chesapeake Bay, landed at Elkton, Maryland, and marched north with the purpose of capturing Philadelphia. Washington tried to stop the march of the British, and a severe battle was fought on Brandywine Creek, but the enemy was too strong, and the patriot army was defeated.

Movements of the Armies.—The army retreated, a part of it resting at Chester for the night, the main body crossing the Schuylkill and camping at Germantown. The British established their camp at Village Green, in Delaware County, the farms and houses of that fertile district being widely plundered.

Four days after the battle of Brandywine, Washington left his camp and marched towards the enemy. He proposed to fight another battle for the safety of Philadelphia. On the morning of September 16 the two armies faced each other. The skirmishers had begun firing, when there came up a violent storm of rain, so wetting the powder of the soldiers that it could not be used. Washington was therefore obliged to withdraw.

The Surprise at Paoli.—On the 20th, General Wayne, who was encamped at Paoli, was attacked at night by a strong force of British led by Tories of the neighborhood. After a desperate fight, Wayne managed to withdraw his men, though with a loss of about two hundred. This event was afterwards known as the "Massacre of Paoli." A monument now marks the battle-field.

On September 23 the British army crossed the Schuylkill at Swedes' Ford, having deceived Washington by a pretence of crossing higher up. On the 25th it marched to Germantown, and entered Philadelphia on the 26th. Congress had

again left, this time for Lancaster, Pennsylvania, where a one-day session was held September 27. An extended session began at York, Pennsylvania, September 30.

The Defence of the Delaware.—The British found it no easy matter to get their fleet up the Delaware to Philadelphia. The Americans held Fort Mifflin on the Pennsylvania side and Fort Mercer on the New Jersey side, and it took the enemy two months to capture these forts. Fort Mercer was assaulted by a strong force of Hessian soldiers on October 22, but they were driven away with heavy loss. At the same time the war-vessels in the river fired on the forts, but they were attacked and defeated by the little Pennsylvania fleet.

The Forts evacuated.—Finally the British general surrounded the forts with batteries of cannon, which fired upon them day and night. Yet the brave garrisons kept up the defence for nearly a month longer. Then, the forts being in ruins, they escaped with their cannon and stores. The little fleet was lost in an attempt to sail up past the city, and the British ships at length reached the wharves.

The Battle of the Kegs.—An amusing incident followed the success of the British fleet. On the 7th of January, 1778, a number of kegs were seen floating on the river past the city. The British watched them with alarm, thinking that the Americans had devised a plot to blow up their ships. They imagined that the kegs were filled with powder, to be in some way exploded if they should touch a ship. So the guns were turned on them, and the innocent kegs were battered with cannon-balls. Francis Hopkinson, a poet of that time, wrote a humorous ballad upon this incident, calling it "The Battle of the Kegs."

Germantown and Whitemarsh.—The Americans were as active on land as on the water. On October 4 Washington's

army attacked the British in their camp at Germantown. The enemy was taken by surprise, and probably would have been defeated but for a fog that interfered with the American movements. On December 4 General Howe similarly tried to take Washington by surprise in his camp at Whitemarsh. But the Americans had been secretly warned and were ready for them, and the British marched back without firing a shot. It is said that a woman named Lydia Darrach had heard the British officers talking of their plans and had managed to carry the news to the Americans.

Valley Forge.—On December 11 the American army went into winter quarters at Valley Forge. It was a terrible winter the soldiers spent there. The cold was severe; the men had little clothing, and many of them had no shoes; food was very scarce; numbers of them died; Washington did all he could for them, but he had much to contend with. A Quaker one day saw the general on his knees in the woods praying to God for help. On going home he said to his wife, "If there is any one man on earth to whom the Lord will listen, it is George Washington."

The British in Philadelphia.—Meanwhile, the British were passing a pleasant winter in Philadelphia, enjoying theatrical entertainments, feasts, and other pleasures. In May, 1778, they gave a grand *fête* to General Howe, who had been superseded by Sir Henry Clinton. It was called the *Meschianza*, or "medley," and was made up of a showy river procession, a tournament, fireworks, and a banquet. In the midst of it Captain McLane, a dashing cavalry officer in Washington's army, crept with his men up to the British redoubts, covered everything they could with tar, and set fire to it. A frightful uproar followed in the city, drums were beat and cannon roared, but the unwelcome visitors all escaped to boast of their exploit.

Lafayette attacked.—On the next day a strong British force left the city, in the hope of surprising Lafayette, who was encamped on Barren Hill, above Germantown. They expected to surround and cut him off, but he discovered them in time and slipped away, leaving the disgusted British only an empty camp.

Aid from the French.—About the same time welcome news came to the camp. Benjamin Franklin had induced the King of France to recognize the independence of the American States and to send a fleet and an army to their aid. The news of this gave the British as much fear as it gave joy to the Americans. General Howe was afraid of being blockaded in the Delaware by a French fleet, and sent his own ships hastily to New York. On the 18th of June the British army left Philadelphia, to the great joy of all patriotic citizens, and started on a march to New York. Washington at once broke camp and followed, bringing the enemy to battle at Monmouth, New Jersey. Thus ended the invasion of Pennsylvania.

The Stars and Stripes.—At this point it may be well to say something about the United States flag. Flags of several kinds were used in the opening years of the war, but the “Star-Spangled Banner” came into existence in Philadelphia in 1777. A resolution was offered in Congress June 14 to the effect that the flag should have thirteen stripes, alternately red and white, and the union thirteen white stars in a blue field. The number thirteen indicated the thirteen original States. The first flag was made under the direction of Washington, aided by a committee of Congress, by Mrs. Betsy Ross, at her house, No. 239 Arch Street, Philadelphia. This house has become a place of pilgrimage for Philadelphia school-children on “Flag Day,” June 15.

The Settlement of Wyoming.—In the year 1778 a dreadful event took place in the beautiful valley of Wyoming, in Northeastern Pennsylvania. This valley was first visited in 1742 by Count Zinzendorf, a Moravian missionary from Germany. In 1762 a settlement was made there of people from Connecticut, who claimed that it belonged to that colony. This settlement was broken up by the Indians, and the people had to flee for their lives.

In 1769 it was settled by Pennsylvanians. Some more people also came from Connecticut, and disputes began, followed by fights, in which a number of persons were killed. This strife kept up until the war of the Revolution, when the people had to join hands against a new enemy. In 1776 there were about five thousand people in the valley.

Wyoming Invaded.—In the summer of 1778 a party of British, Indians, and Tories, under Colonel John Butler, invaded the valley. Many of its fighting-men were in the army, but a small force was hastily raised and marched against the enemy. The invaders proved too strong: the patriot army was defeated, and many of the fugitives were killed by the Indians.

Two days afterwards, July 5, the fort, to which many of the people had fled, was surrendered, on promise of protection. Little protection was given. The Indians swarmed through the valley, burning and murdering, and the people were forced to flee to the forests and marshes, where many of them perished.

The Indians Punished.—The massacre at Wyoming was followed by Indian raids elsewhere in the northern part of the State. These kept up till August, 1779, when General Sullivan marched with a strong force into the Indian country, destroyed the villages and stores of food, and punished

the savages so severely that they were obliged to cease their raids.

March to Yorktown.—The massacre was the last event of the war in Pennsylvania. In 1781 the American and French armies marched through Philadelphia on their way to Yorktown, Virginia, where the surrender of General Cornwallis brought the long and terrible struggle to an end.

The Revolt of the Soldiers.—The close of the war filled the people with joy, but the soldiers were suffering for food and clothing, and had long been without pay. Congress made promises, but did nothing, and on the 1st of January, 1782, a body of Pennsylvania troops left the camp at Morristown, New Jersey, to march to Philadelphia and demand justice from their representatives.

General Wayne, their commander, hurried after them, and tried to persuade them to return to camp. In the end he drew his pistol and threatened to shoot the leaders if they did not turn back. The men at once raised their muskets, telling him that they loved and respected him, but that if he fired his pistol they would kill him.

They showed him their ragged clothing, told him of their sufferings for food, and insisted on going to demand justice from Congress. As they would not turn back, Wayne went with them. At Princeton they were met by a committee of Congress, who promised that their demands should be granted. Those whose time was up were allowed to go home; the others went back to camp. The British commander at New York, hearing of this revolt, sent secret agents to the soldiers to induce them to desert. He did not know the Pennsylvanians. They seized the agents and handed them over to General Wayne, by whom they were tried and hung as spies.

V.—THE GROWTH OF THE STATE.

The Constitutional Convention.—Philadelphia, then the largest city in the country, and the capital not only of Pennsylvania but of the United States, became the scene of a very important event in the period following the war. A convention met there in 1787 to adopt a new system of government and form a constitution for the United States. This convention was held in the State-House, now known as Independence Hall; Washington was its president, and its members included Benjamin Franklin, Robert Morris, and other eminent citizens of the State.

Philadelphia the Capital.—The story of the Constitution belongs to the history of the United States. It will suffice to say here that Philadelphia was the capital of the country from 1774 to 1789, and again, under the new constitution, from 1790 to 1800, when the capital was removed to Washington, D.C.

The State Constitution.—Benjamin Franklin was president of the convention which met on July 15, 1776, and declared Pennsylvania a State. On the 26th of September the old assembly of the province, which had existed nearly a hundred years, ceased to meet, and the authority of the Penns* was at an end. Two days afterwards the new con-

* The loss of political control by the Penns did not affect their title to their landed estate in Pennsylvania, though the most of this was afterwards confiscated. Though William Penn obtained little money from his province, and had to go to prison for debt, it became very valuable to his sons and grandsons, who lived in state on the product of their quit-rents and their sales of land. It is estimated that their property in Pennsylvania in 1759 was worth four million pounds and yielded an annual income of ten thousand pounds. This at that time had about four times the value it would have now. In 1779, during the Revolution, the assembly gave the Penns one hundred and thirty thousand pounds in payment for their confiscated lands, and expressed their regret that they could not give more. The heirs retained all their manors and some pri-

stitution was signed, and the new government of Pennsylvania began.

Under this constitution an Assembly of Delegates made the laws and a Supreme Executive Council administered them. The President of the Council was the chief magistrate of the State. A new convention was held in 1790 and a new constitution adopted. This constitution was based on that of the United States. It provided for two law-making bodies,—a Senate and a House of Representatives. A Governor took the place of the President of the Supreme Council. The first governor was Thomas Mifflin. The new government began December 21, 1790.

The State Capital.—In 1799 the seat of government of the State was removed from Philadelphia to Lancaster, as a more central place. But as the western section of the State grew more populous, Lancaster ceased to be central, and in 1812 Harrisburg was chosen as the State capital. The building of a State-house began there in 1819, and was completed in 1821.

Purchases of Land.—And now, having spoken of these political changes, we may say something about the settlement of the State. It must not be supposed that the people took possession of the land just as they pleased, without regard to the rights of the Indians. We have told the story of the “walking purchase” made in 1737. Five other purchases of land were made by the Penns, the last and greatest being in 1768. In 1785 a purchase was made by the State authorities, which put an end to all Indian claims and gave the whole State to the whites.

vate estates and quit-rents, and some of these are still held by the family. The British government gave them to repay their losses in the Revolution an annuity of four thousand pounds a year, which was commuted in 1884 by a grant of sixty-seven thousand pounds.

A Lake Port.—But Pennsylvania had no access to Lake Erie, from which it was cut off by a small tract of land, of triangular shape, belonging to the United States. This was bought by the State in 1788. It gave Pennsylvania a valuable lake harbor, now the city of Erie. The State, as thus completed, is 302 miles 104 perches in its greatest length, 175 miles 192 perches in its greatest width. Its average length is 280.39 miles; average width, 158.05 miles.

The Perils of the Settlers.—The settlements were steadily pushed farther and farther west, large counties being first formed, which in time were broken up into smaller counties. After the outbreak of war with the French the settlers were always in danger from the Indians. Each little community had its central fort, to which the people ran for safety whenever the savages appeared. The farmer went to his work with his musket swung at his side. The mechanic kept his rifle within reach of his hand. When a party of men met for any purpose, they stacked their arms within easy reach and placed a sentinel to watch for danger. Men were often obliged to fight their dusky foes as they ran in haste to the fort, perhaps with their wives and children before them.

The Attack on Rice's Fort.—In 1782 one of these little settlements, on Buffalo Creek, was attacked by a party of Indians who had been defeated in an assault on Wheeling, Virginia. In the settlement was a block-house called Rice's Fort. The people, warned just in time of the danger, fled in haste to this stronghold, and were not long there before the savages burst with war-whoops from the woods, expecting to take the fort by storm. There were only six men within, but they were skilful riflemen, and soon drove their foes to the shelter of trees and logs.

For nearly four hours the fight was kept up. The savages

cried, "Give up; too many Indian; Indian too big. No kill." But the frontiersmen did not trust their treacherous enemies. One of them was killed, but the five continued to fight against more than a hundred foes. Finally, hearing the approach of reinforcements, the savages fled, after burning the buildings and killing all the cattle, sheep, and hogs of the inhabitants.

The Wedding Party.—Many other stories of the perils of the settlers might be told. In one instance a wedding party was attacked by the savages when at the height of its enjoyment. The bride and groom and nearly all the others were taken prisoners, loaded with the plunder of the savages, and carried off into a cruel captivity.

The people living near by fled to the nearest settlement. One man who had his aged mother and a child to save was pursued so closely that he had to desert the child in order to save his mother. On his return the next day, to his heartfelt joy the child was found asleep in its bed, the only living being left by the savage foe.

The Whiskey War.—There was one difficulty which the Western settlers had to meet. They raised more grain than they needed for food. There were then no railroads nor canals, and they had no easy way to send this grain to the towns of the East, while there was little demand for it in the West. As it was not needed for food, they made whiskey from it, great quantities of corn and rye being thus used. It was easier to carry the whiskey to market than the grain, for a small quantity of whiskey represented many bushels of grain. But in 1790 Congress laid a tax on all distilled spirits. This law was violently opposed by the people of Western Pennsylvania, who declared that they would not pay the tax. Meetings were held, the officers of the law were resisted, and the excitement in time grew so

great that several persons were tarred and feathered and the lives of the officials were not safe.

The government tried to quiet the people and induce them to obey the law, but in vain. At length, in 1794, President Washington was obliged to call out the militia of Pennsylvania and the neighboring States to put down the rebellion. Fifteen thousand men were gathered and marched across the mountains towards the locality of the revolt. The coming of the soldiers soon settled the difficulty. A few of the leaders were held for trial, but no one was punished, and the "Whiskey War," as it was called, came quietly to an end.

New Markets.—It was not long before the farmers began to find a market for their grain in the West, while the great national highway known as the Cumberland Road, from Cumberland, Maryland, across the mountains to Wheeling, Virginia, which was begun in 1806, made a new avenue of transportation to the East.

The Hot Water Rebellion.—The "Whiskey War" was the work of the excitable Scotch-Irish of Western Pennsylvania. Soon after the Germans in the east of the State became disturbed by a law laying a tax on houses. The outbreak got its name from the fact that a woman poured hot water on an assessor who was measuring her house for taxation. An auctioneer named Fries was the leader in the disturbance, and in March, 1799, he made his way at the head of a hundred armed men to Bethlehem and set free some prisoners who had been taken there. A force was now sent by the governor, and the revolt came to an end. Fries hid in a swamp, but was taken prisoner and condemned to death. He was pardoned by President Adams.

Yellow Fever.—Philadelphia has at various times been the seat of violent epidemics of yellow fever. The first of

these was in 1699. In 1762 the fever raged terribly in the city, and also with great violence in 1793 and 1797. In 1793 Stephen Girard, the celebrated Philadelphia merchant, showed the greatest feeling for the sick, whom he nursed in the hospital at imminent risk to his own life. The new ideas about cleanliness and the sanitary methods now in use have removed all danger of further visits of this dreaded disease.

Growth of Pittsburg.—Fort Pitt, the strongest fort west of the Alleghanies, in time became a place for traders to meet and settlers to locate. A few log huts were first built; then a small village grew up; finally a city developed. The Penn family owned the land about the forks of the rivers until 1784, when it was divided into lots and offered for sale. At that time Pittsburg was but a small place, trading by wagons and pack-horses with Baltimore and Philadelphia. In 1786 its people numbered nearly five hundred, and the *Pittsburg Gazette*, the first newspaper west of the mountains, was started.

In 1816 Pittsburg became a city. The borough of Alleghany, on the opposite side of the Alleghany River, also in time was made a city, and the two, though still separate as cities, now form one great centre of trade and manufacture. In the production of iron and steel they have no equal in the country, while their trade by way of the Ohio, which soon became large, has been immensely extended by the aid of canals and railroads.

The City of Erie.—In 1795, when the town of Erie, on the shore of Lake Erie, was laid out, there were only four families in what is now Erie County. This county was formed in 1800, having at that time nearly fifteen hundred inhabitants. Highways were laid out, one connecting with Pittsburg by way of the Alleghany River, and a large trade

sprang up by way of the roads and the lake. Iron- and glass-ware, flour and grain, salt, whiskey, and bacon were some of the principal articles of trade.

The Lakes in the War of 1812.—The town of Erie became a point of importance in 1812, after the second war with Great Britain began. The great lakes were at first in full possession of the enemy, and all the settlements along their shores were in danger. To change this state of affairs the government decided that a fleet should be built, and Erie was selected as the place of building.

Building a Fleet.—In the summer of 1812 a naval officer named Daniel Dobbins was sent to Erie with orders to build vessels, and by winter he had a small fleet well under way. Captain Oliver H. Perry was sent there in March, 1813, to command the fleet. He found much to be done, but he set to work with energy to do it. Trees were cut in the forest, and in a short time their timber formed part of ships. The iron for the vessels was brought from Pittsburg by boat and wagon, and cannon and balls were transported from the same place.

Perry's Victory.—In August the fleet was ready for action, and Perry set sail in search of the enemy. On the 10th of September the two fleets met and fought, and by four o'clock in the afternoon every vessel in the British fleet had surrendered. Before sunset Perry sent to General Harrison his famous despatch, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

Philadelphia defended.—Pennsylvania had little more to do with this war. British war-ships entered the Delaware and Chesapeake Bays in the summer of 1814, and volunteers were called out. Earthworks were thrown up on the roads leading to Philadelphia, and a large number of men were soon under arms. The enemy did not enter Pennsyl-

vania, but several thousand men were kept in the camps along the Delaware until the close of the year, when all danger was at an end.

Slavery abolished.—We may conclude this review of political affairs by stating what was done on the subject of slavery. Negro slaves were kept in Pennsylvania from its origin until the close of the Revolution. This was against the wish of many of the people. The Friends and the German religious societies protested against the system, but it was kept up by British power until the war brought that power to an end. The trade in slaves was too valuable to the merchants of Great Britain to be given up. A law was passed on March 1, 1780, for the gradual abolition of slavery in Pennsylvania. The slaves then held were to continue such until their death, but all the children of slaves, born after that date, were to become free at the age of twenty-eight. The number of slaves soon began to decrease. In 1790 there were 3737; in 1810, 795; in 1830, 67. In the census of 1850 one name still remained on the roll. Those slaves who had grown old in bondage were content to end their lives in the service of their masters.

VI.—INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT.

Steamboat Inventors.—So far we have paid attention mainly to political matters. Now something needs to be said about the great industrial development of the State. It is of interest to know that the first experiments with steamboats were made on the Delaware. John Fitch placed a small steamboat on this river in 1787, and in 1790 had a passenger-boat running on the river at the speed of seven miles an hour. Robert Fulton, who invented the first successful steamboat, was born in Pennsylvania, and Oliver Evans made himself famous by his experiments on steam-

wagons, one of which he ran through the streets of Philadelphia long before the days of the railroad locomotive.

Canals.—Pennsylvania was one of the first States to consider the making of canals. In 1769 a survey for a canal between the Delaware and Chesapeake Bays was ordered by the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia. About the same time the assembly of the province had a survey made for a canal from the Delaware River to Pittsburg and Erie, a distance of five hundred and eighty-two miles. This canal project was strongly approved by the governor, but was beyond the power of the province to carry out. At that time Europe had no canal of such a length. Still earlier, in 1762, a survey for a canal from the Schuylkill to the Susquehanna had been made. This was the line afterwards followed by the Union Canal, begun in 1791 and completed in 1827.

Various other canals were begun at a later date, the Schuylkill in 1816, the Lehigh in 1818, the Conestoga in 1825, and the Pennsylvania in 1827. This last-named canal, which stretched far across the State, and was in conformity with the project entertained over fifty years before, was four hundred and twenty-six miles in the total length of its several sections. In 1840 there were twelve hundred and eighty miles of canal in the State.

Railroads.—The progress of canals was checked by that of railroads, which began shortly before 1830. The first railroad constructed in this country was a short road with wooden rails, built in 1806 in a quarry near Chester, Pennsylvania. In 1827 a railroad nine miles long was constructed from Manch Chunk to the coal-mines in its vicinity. The next railroad in the State was the Carbondale road, extending from the Delaware and Hudson Canal to the mines, and on this was placed in 1829 the first locomotive

ever used in this country, the "Stourbridge Lion," imported from England.

By the end of 1835 the railroads of Pennsylvania, mostly built to transport coal, were three hundred and eighteen miles in length. At that time there were but one thousand miles in the whole country. The Philadelphia and Columbia Railroad (eighty-two miles) and the Portage Railroad (thirty-six miles) were opened in 1834. These, with the canals, formed a continuous line extending from Philadelphia to Pittsburg. This was superseded by the Pennsylvania Central Railroad, completed in 1854. By that date there were many other railroads widely extended through the State.

Anthracite Coal.—Its mines of coal and iron led to the early development of canals and railroads in Pennsylvania, and of these something must here be said. This State is remarkable for its great deposits of anthracite coal, which have no equal in Europe or elsewhere in America. This kind of coal, "stone coal" it has been called, is much harder than bituminous coal and not so easily burned, so that it took many years to bring it into general use.

Coal Discoveries.—Anthracite coal was first discovered in the Wyoming Valley in 1768, and was first used by two blacksmiths who had set up a forge in that region. The coal of the Lehigh region was found in 1791 by a hunter named Philip Ginter, who, while hunting on Bear Mountain, nine miles west of Mauch Chunk, struck his foot against a black stone and saw other pieces of the same substance in the earth about the roots of a fallen tree. He had heard of the stone coal of Wyoming Valley, and took a piece of this home with him. It proved to be pure anthracite coal. In 1793 the Lehigh Coal-Mine Company was formed, but it took years to bring its coal into use.

The Schuylkill coal was also discovered by a hunter. This man, Nicho Allen, camped one night in 1790 under a ledge of rocks, building his fire on some pieces of black stone which had fallen from above. He woke in the night and found those stones red-hot and burning. Five years afterwards the blacksmiths of that region were using this black rock in their furnaces.

The Burning of Coal.—In 1803 the Lehigh Coal-Mine Company sent some boat-loads of coal to Philadelphia. It was hard to find a purchaser, but the city at length bought it to use at the water-works. No one there knew how to burn it, and in the end it was broken up and spread on the public foot-walks.

William Morris took a wagon-load of Schuylkill coal to Philadelphia in 1810, but no one was willing to buy it. In 1812 Colonel Shoemaker took nine loads to the city. Some of these were sold to blacksmiths, and one to the Fairmount Nail and Wire Works.

Here an earnest effort was made to burn it. A good fire was built in the furnace and the coal thrown in. For half a day the men spent their time in “poking and raking and stirring and blowing,” but the coal would not burn. At dinner-time, worn out and disgusted, they slammed the doors of the furnace shut and went home to their meals. When they came back, to their astonishment, the furnace was red-hot and the coal at a white heat. All it had wanted was a draught from below. It was the hottest fire they had ever seen, and from that time there was no trouble in selling anthracite coal. Some from the Lehigh region, which was brought to the city in 1814, was sold to the wire-mill at twenty-one dollars a ton.

Bituminous Coal.—The use of bituminous coal, which is very abundant in the western part of the State, began soon

after settlers reached there. It was first burned by the smiths, and afterwards in furnaces, and later great quantities of it were sent down the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers to the towns of the West and South.

Iron-Works.—The working of iron from the iron-mines of the State first began at Coventry Forge, in Chester County, in 1720. There were four blast-furnaces in operation in 1728, and others were rapidly added. It was not until 1839 that anthracite coal was successfully used to reduce iron ores, and from that time the production of iron very rapidly increased.

Oil-Wells.—There is one other great natural product of Pennsylvania of which something must be said. When the whites first reached the western part of the State they found that the Seneca Indians had long been in the habit of visiting certain streams in that section to perform religious ceremonies. An oily scum covered the surface of these streams, and it was the custom of the Indians to set fire to this. As it flamed upward, the savages ran along the banks of the stream, dancing and singing.

The white settlers first obtained this oil by dipping blankets into the water and then pressing out the oil. It was also found to exude from the earth, and finally, about 1860, men began to sink artesian wells, in the hope of finding oil deep in the earth. They were very successful in this, and the production and refining of petroleum or rock oil have grown into immense industries. From some of the wells came up great quantities of gas which could be burned, and this was conducted in pipes to Pittsburg and other cities, where it has been long used in houses and workshops in place of coal.

Manufacturing Cities.—The abundance of iron, coal, oil, and other products of nature has had much to do

with the industrial history of Pennsylvania, which has taken a leading position among the manufacturing States of the Union. Its largest cities, Philadelphia and Pittsburg, rank high among the centres of industry of the world, while Scranton, Reading, Pottsville, and other cities of the coal and iron regions are similarly active in production.

Colonial Production.—During the colonial period activity in manufacture was prevented by British laws, only some simple articles for home use being made. There were saw- and grist-mills, linen and woollen goods were woven at home, and many vessels were built in the ship-yards on the Delaware, but it was not until after the Revolution that production became active.

The abundance of iron ore was early discovered, but the manufacture of iron was held in check by the laws of Great Britain, and little could be done until the province had become a State and its people were free to make for themselves the goods they needed.

Mines and Workshops.—During the century and more of its existence as a State the progress of Pennsylvania in mining and manufactures has been very great. The yield of its mines of coal and iron has been enormous, its oil-wells have supplied the world with a valuable product, and its workshops have developed until they are surpassed nowhere in the world. In the workshops of Pittsburg everything that can be made of iron is produced, while Philadelphia is celebrated throughout the world for the variety, abundance, and value of its manufactured goods.

The Industries of Philadelphia.—In its early history Philadelphia was noted for its active shipping interests, in which it surpassed any other city of the New World. This supremacy it has not held, New York and Boston being far

better situated for commerce. But in manufactures it has grown to be one of the great cities of the world, having an enormous ship-building establishment, immense workshops for the manufacture of locomotives and other fabrics of iron and steel, woollen and cotton goods, carpets, refined sugar, and many other products, so that from end to end it is a great hive of industry and a home of comfort and abundance.

Book-Publishing.—For a long period after the Revolution Philadelphia was the great book-publishing centre of the country. There were all the great publishing houses, and there the leading magazines were issued. To these most of the able young writers of the country contributed. Charles Brockden Brown, the first successful American novelist, was a Philadelphian. It was long thought that no magazine could succeed unless published in Philadelphia. Of late years, however, Philadelphia has lost its eminence in this direction, though it is still an active publishing centre.

Early Schools.—The people of Pennsylvania have ever been the warm friends and advocates of education, and in the early years of the colony provision was made for the instruction of its youth. Under a law enacted in the first year of the province, a school was opened at Philadelphia in 1683. This school was taught by Enoch Flowers, and in 1689 the Friends opened a school at Philadelphia, for which William Penn selected the motto, "Good instruction is better than riches." This school still exists as the William Penn Charter School. In 1692 a school was kept at Darby.

Higher Education.—In 1736 the "Log College," a classical school, was established in Bucks County, and thirteen years later a similar school was opened at New

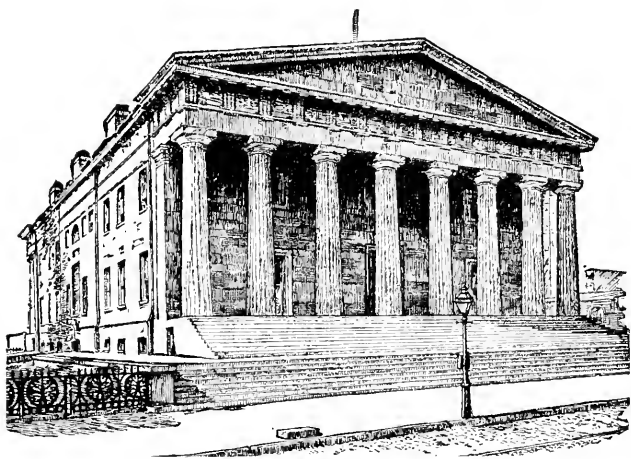
London, Chester County. The first school exclusively for the education of girls was established at Bethlehem, in 1749, by the Moravians, who also opened a boys' school, called Nazareth Hall, at Nazareth, in 1785. In 1794 a seminary for young ladies was established at Lititz.¹ To the German Baptists, usually known as Dunkers, belongs the credit of having opened at Ephrata, Lancaster County, in 1740, the first Sabbath-school in America.

Free Schools.—The State Constitution of 1790 made it the duty of the Legislature to provide schools for the free instruction of the children of the poor, but no law establishing schools for the free education of all classes was passed until 1834. In the following year a vigorous effort was made by the enemies of this system for the repeal of the law. In this crisis Mr. Thaddens Stevens, a member of the Legislature, came to the rescue, making speeches throughout the State and rousing the press to the support of the free school system. His efforts were successful, and common school education has since that time existed in Pennsylvania. The system of supervision by county superintendents was adopted in 1854, and the first State normal school was founded in 1857. At present Pennsylvania has thirteen normal and more than twenty-five thousand common schools, while the pupils on the school rolls number more than one million one hundred and twenty-five thousand.

Banking Institutions.—In the financial development of the country Pennsylvania long held a leading place. The Bank of North America, the first bank in the United States, was founded at Philadelphia in 1781. It was due to the genius of Robert Morris, the great financier of the Revolution. Ten years afterwards, in 1791, the first Bank of the United States was incorporated in Philadelphia. In

the following year the United States Mint was established in that city, and the coinage of money began.

The first United States bank closed in 1811, and a second one was chartered in 1816 to run for twenty years. In 1832



UNITED STATES BANK.

a new charter was applied for, but President Jackson vetoed the bill, and the bank went out of existence in 1836. The handsome edifice of white marble of Grecian architecture, built for it in 1819–24, is now used as the United States Custom-House and also as the Sub-Treasury at Philadelphia. The Bank of North America, the oldest banking institution in the New World, is still actively engaged in business.

VII.—RECENT HISTORY.

Since the war of 1812–15 Pennsylvania has grown rapidly in wealth and population, its history presenting few of those striking events which attract the attention of the historian, but being marked by the steady succession of those steps of

industrial and social progress upon which the comfort and happiness of mankind depend.

Mob Rule.—For years during this period the city of Philadelphia sank to a low level as a place of peaceful residence, being at the mercy of mobs and organized bands of rioters. This state of affairs continued for a long time, its worst phase being reached between the years 1840 and 1850.

The Fire Companies.—Before 1825 the fire companies had been composed of respectable people, but after that date men of rough character made their way into them, and for many years they were centres of riot and disorder. Fights between rival companies were common, and buildings were often set on fire to form an opportunity for a fight. Buildings would be allowed to burn while rival firemen were fighting for the possession of a fire-plug, goods were ruined by water thrown without discretion, and houses were plundered by thieves in the dress of firemen.

Other Rioters.—In addition to the fire companies and their brigand retainers there were other gangs of rioters, calling themselves Schnyldkill Rangers and other names, who made certain districts unsafe to live in. It was dangerous to be out at night; these gangs indulged in desperate fights with one another, and even the boys imitated them by stone fights, which made the streets unsafe. The police force was weak and inefficient, and it was not until after the civil war that respect for law and order began to prevail.

The Negroes attacked.—During this period the negroes of the city were frequently attacked by mobs of the ignorant and brutal classes. In one of these, in 1835, the negroes were hunted for two nights, their houses burned, many of them injured, and most of them driven away from the city. In 1838 Pennsylvania Hall, where some women

were holding an anti-slavery meeting, was set on fire and burned to the ground. A church and a shelter for colored children were also burned. There were similar riots in 1842 and 1849, in which halls and churches were burned, the authorities making no effort to protect the persecuted negroes.

The Native American Riots.—The worst riots of the city were those of 1844, when the “Native Americans”—a society opposed to the immigration of foreigners—attacked the Irish Catholic population of the city. These riots continued at intervals for several months, and were attended with frequent and destructive street-fights. The militia were called out, but were fought by the mob, who had obtained cannon, which they dragged with muffled wheels through the dark streets to fire on the soldiers. Before the outbreak ended many lives had been lost, while thirty houses, three churches, and a convent were burned.

The District System.—This state of affairs was partly due to the division of the city into districts and boroughs, each with its own laws and officials. The city itself was a small area, extending from Vine to South Street and from the Delaware to the Schuylkill,—two miles long by one mile wide. Around it were the districts of Southwark, Northern Liberties, Moyamensing, Spring Garden, etc., and various boroughs and townships, there being twenty-nine divisions in all.

Consolidation.—This state of affairs continued until 1854, when a consolidation act was passed, which did away with this system, and brought all the divisions within the city, which was extended to the limits of the county. Since then it has been much more easy to govern it, and the period of riot and disorder has passed away.

A Pennsylvania President.—In 1856 James Buchanan, a native of Franklin County, Pennsylvania, was elected Presi-

dent of the United States. The country was at peace, though in a state of great excitement over the slavery question, when he took his seat. When he retired, March 4, 1861, it was on the verge of war.

The Call for Troops.—On the 15th of April President Lincoln issued his first call for troops. At once, in every part of the State, men hastened to enlist, and on the morning of the 18th five companies from Pennsylvania marched into Washington, being the first of the volunteers to reach the national capital, which at that time was thought to be in great danger. In ten days after the date of the President's proclamation twenty-five Pennsylvania regiments, numbering more than twenty-five thousand men, were ready to take part in the war.

Some Leading Pennsylvanians.—Simon Cameron, Secretary of War, a native of Pennsylvania, advised the President to call out half a million of men and use every effort to overthrow the rebellion at the start. Thaddeus Stevens, a member of Congress from Pennsylvania, urged the calling out of a million of men. They both held that it would be wise to set free and arm the slaves, that they might be used in the war. Andrew Curtin, the governor of the State, was one of the most active of the Northern governors in supplying the government with men and materials for the war.



HON. THADDEUS STEVENS.

The Reserve Corps.—On the 15th of May a bill was passed by the Legislature calling out a body of troops known afterwards as the Pennsylvania Reserves. They numbered fifteen regiments, and were called into the field

immediately after the battle of Bull Run, when Washington was again in danger from the enemy. They served with distinguished gallantry in the fiercest battles of the war. At the head of the Reserves was Major-General McCall; its brigadiers were Generals Meade, Reynolds, and Ord, all of whom became famous in the war.

The Refreshment Saloons.—Philadelphia did a noble service in the great struggle by feeding the weary and hungry regiments who passed through that city on their way to Washington. On the 27th of May, 1861, the Union Volunteer Refreshment Saloon was opened, and the Cooper Shop Volunteer Refreshment Committee was soon after organized. Each regiment found awaiting it water for washing and bathing, clean towels, an abundance of well-cooked food, and numbers of active and patriotic attendants. These saloons were kept open during the war, and fed more than a million of men. A hospital for the sick was also established, and the generous people of Philadelphia won the warm thanks of the President and of the governors of the Eastern and Northern States for their aid to the soldiers.

Chambersburg raided.—The first invasion of Pennsylvania took place on the 10th of October, 1862, shortly after the battle of Antietam, when a party of Confederate cavalry, under General Stuart, made a raid through Franklin County, burning the railroad buildings at Chambersburg and destroying a large amount of war material.

Battle of Gettysburg.—In the following summer the whole Confederate army of Virginia invaded the State, within whose limits was fought one of the greatest battles of modern times. This was the famous battle of Gettysburg, the turning-point in the great struggle for the existence of the nation.

What took place at Gettysburg belongs to the history of the United States. For an account of the battle, see



GENERAL GEORGE G. MEADE.

page 208 of the preceding "History of the United States." General Lee's hope was to defeat the army of the North and occupy the rich city of Philadelphia, which would have been a terrible disaster to the Union cause. Small parties of Confederate cavalry seized on Carlisle, York, and other places, burned the bridge across the Susquehanna at Columbia and other bridges, tore up the railroad tracks,

and did what other damage they could. But the defeat at Gettysburg put an end to all General Lee's plans, and on the night of the 3d of July what was left of his army retreated in haste towards the Potomac. More than thirty thousand of his soldiers had been killed, wounded, or remained as captives.

The Burning of Chambersburg.—A third invasion of Pennsylvania took place in July, 1864, when a party of cavalry from General Early's army made a rapid raid through the western part of the State, the town of Chambersburg being again entered. The people were ordered to pay two hundred thousand dollars in gold or half a million in paper money if they would save their town from ruin. This they were not able to do, and the town was set on fire, no time being allowed for the removal of the sick or infirm. The flames destroyed two-thirds of the houses, the loss to the people being estimated at two million dollars.

The Sanitary Fair.—On June 7, 1864, there was opened at Philadelphia a great sanitary fair for the benefit of the Sanitary Commission of the army. The buildings were

erected on Logan Square, which they completely covered, and a large sum of money was raised for the use of that noble work of benevolence.

Soldiers' Orphans.—Governor Curtin had early pledged the State to take care of the children of volunteer soldiers who might fall in the war, and the Legislature passed a law for this purpose in 1864. In consequence soldiers' orphans' schools were established in different parts of the State, where the children of fallen patriots were taken care of and educated, and at the age of sixteen were put in positions to learn trades or in business situations.

Pennsylvania in the War.—During the four years of war Pennsylvania sent to the field two hundred and seventy regiments and several companies, the whole numbering three hundred and eighty-seven thousand two hundred and eighty-four men. In addition to the generals in command of the Reserve Corps, already named, Pennsylvania supplied several other officers who became of great prominence in the army. Of these may be named Generals George B. McClellan and Winfield S. Hancock, both of whom afterwards became candidates for the office of President of the United States, and General John W. Geary, who was elected Governor of Pennsylvania in 1866. We have already spoken of General Meade, who was in command at the battle of Gettysburg, and General Reynolds, who died on the field in that desperate struggle.

The State Constitution.—In 1701 the assembly of the province of Pennsylvania adopted a constitution, to which William Penn gave his assent. In it the principles of American liberty were clearly outlined, some of its provisions being similar to those of the Constitution of the United States. In 1776, shortly after the declaration of independence, a State constitution was formed, and another

in 1790, based in a measure on that of the United States. This held good until 1838, when a new constitution was adopted, which was amended in the years 1850, 1857, and 1864. In 1873 a constitutional convention was held, in which the present constitution of the State was prepared and adopted.

Centennial Exhibition.—As the years moved on and the hundredth anniversary of American independence came near, it was resolved to celebrate this important anniversary by a great World's Fair; and as the Declaration of Independence had been made and signed in Philadelphia, that city was selected as the proper site for the celebration.

Three years before, in 1873, a large banking-house in Philadelphia had failed, and a panic begun from which the country was still suffering. This interfered in part with the success of the fair, but it proved to be one of the largest and most important exhibitions of the works of human art and industry ever held. The buildings were erected in Fairmount Park, and covered a great extent of ground, the Main Hall covering twenty acres. Many millions of persons visited the fair, and many valuable lessons were learned from it. One of these was that America was far behind Europe in art work. Since then there has been a great development in American art, which had its origin in the art display at the Centennial Exhibition. But it was found that in machinery and invention America had nothing to learn from Europe, but much to teach it.

The Molly Maguires.—For about ten years before the centennial period the coal-mining regions had been kept in a state of terror by the acts of a secret society of Irish miners, known as the Molly Maguires. Many murders were committed, mostly at night, and the laws were openly defied. None dared give evidence against the murderers,

for fear of being themselves killed, and the band of assassins grew every year bolder and more dangerous. At length a detective named McParlan joined the society and learned its secrets, which he revealed to the authorities in 1876. Arrests were then made among the leaders of the Molly Maguires, and in that and the following year a number of them were convicted and executed for murder. This action broke up the society.

The Railroad Strike.—In 1877, the year after the World's Fair, great strikes broke out in Pennsylvania. The business depression which began in 1873 had been felt by workmen in a lowering of wages. In 1877 several railroad companies reduced the wages of their men. The strike that followed extended through most of the Northern States, and for two weeks the trains were prevented from moving. A strike of the coal-miners of Pennsylvania also took place, and in all about one hundred and fifty thousand men stopped work. Rioting followed, much property was destroyed, and a number of lives were lost.

The worst of the riots were at Pittsburg. Here the State militia were attacked by a furious mob, and great numbers of freight-cars were plundered and burned. The railroad buildings were set on fire, the total loss being nearly three millions of dollars. Finally United States troops had to be sent to Pittsburg to suppress the riot. During the outbreak nearly one hundred persons were killed.

Anniversary Occasions.—The centennial celebration of 1876 was soon followed by other important celebrations. In 1882 came the two-hundredth anniversary of the landing of William Penn, and this was celebrated at Philadelphia by suitable ceremonies. In 1887 arrived the hundredth anniversary of the adoption of the United States Constitution,

which was celebrated in Philadelphia by a series of grand processions, military and industrial.

Electrical Exhibition.—In 1884 an International Electrical Exhibition was held in Philadelphia, in which all the discoveries made up to that time were displayed. It was the most important exhibit of electrical inventions that had been held up to that date. It is proposed to make in 1899 a grand national exhibit of products and manufactures.

Restoration of Independence Hall.—The anniversary celebrations mentioned were followed by a desire to restore Independence Hall to the condition in which it existed during the Revolution. This restoration was completed in 1898, all the later buildings being removed and the rooms brought back to their old state.

Liberty Bell.—In this hall is carefully preserved the most valuable historical relic alike of Pennsylvania and of the United States, the old bell which rang out to the world the story of American independence in 1776. This bell, received in Philadelphia in 1752, bears the strikingly significant inscription, "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land, to all the inhabitants thereof."

It was last rung on the morning of July 8, 1835, when it cracked while being tolled in memory of Chief Justice Marshall. Since then the bell has three times left the city, having been sent to the exhibitions at New Orleans, Chicago, and Atlanta, at which places it formed a principal centre of attraction. It is doubtful if it will be permitted to leave its resting-place in Independence Hall again, it being feared that some accident might befall it.

Washington Monument.—In 1897 a grand equestrian statue of George Washington was erected at the entrance of Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, by the Society of the Cincinnati. The dedication was made the occasion of

grand military and bicycle processions, presided over by President McKinley. The monument is one of the finest and most artistic in the United States.

Johnstown Flood.—The most terrible disaster ever known in the United States took place at Johnstown, a busy manufacturing city in the central region of the State, on May 31, 1889. The Conemaugh River was flooded by the bursting of a large dam several miles above the city, which was completely destroyed by the rushing torrent. More than two thousand persons were drowned and ten million dollars' worth of property was destroyed. Everywhere throughout the State the people gave freely for the aid of the sufferers, and for months charity and sympathy seemed to be their only thoughts.

The Homestead Strike.—We have one more serious strike to speak of,—that which took place at the steel-works at Homestead, near Pittsburg, in 1892. Detectives were hired by the proprietors to protect their works, and these were fired upon and taken prisoners by the strikers, men being killed on both sides. The militia of the State had to be called out, and the works guarded for several weeks, before order was restored. The loss was great to the owners and the workmen, and the State was put to a large expense.

The State Capitol burned.—The State capitol at Harrisburg, the corner-stone of which was laid May 31, 1819, and the main building completed in 1821, caught fire on February 2, 1897, and was burned to the ground. Fortunately, the most valuable of the public records were saved. A strong effort was made to have the State capital removed to Philadelphia, but it was decided to make no change, and a new capitol is about to be erected on the ground which had been occupied by the old one.

AN ELEMENTARY HISTORY OF
COUNTIES IN PENNSYLVANIA.

Counties.	When formed.	County towns.	When laid out.
Chester	1682	West Chester	1786
Bucks	1682	Doylestown	1778
Philadelphia	1682	Philadelphia	1682
Lancaster	1729	Lancaster	1730
York	1749	York	1741
Cumberland	1750	Carlisle	1751
Berks	1752	Reading	1748
Northampton	1752	Easton	1738
Bedford	1771	Bedford	1766
Northumberland	1772	Sunbury	1772
Westmoreland	1773	Greensburg	1782
Washington	1781	Washington	1782
Fayette	1783	Uniontown	1767
Franklin	1784	Chambersburg	1764
Montgomery	1784	Norristown	1784
Dauphin	1785	Harrisburg	1785
Luzerne	1786	Wilkesbarre	1783
Huntingdon	1787	Huntingdon	1767
Alleghany	1788	Pittsburg	1765
Delaware	1789	Media	1849
Mifflin	1789	Lewistown	1790
Somerset	1795	Somerset	1795
Lycoming	1796	Williamsport	1796
Greene	1796	Waynesburg	1796
Wayne	1796	Honesdale	1826
Armstrong	1800	Kittanning	1804
Adams	1800	Gettysburg	1787
Butler	1800	Butler	1803
Beaver	1800	Beaver	1791
Centre	1800	Bellefonte	1795
Crawford	1800	Meadville	1795
Erie	1800	Erie	1795
Mercer	1800	Mercer	1803
Venango	1800	Franklin	1795
Warren	1800	Warren	1795
Indiana	1803	Indiana	1805
Jefferson	1804	Brookville	1830
McKean	1804	Smethport	1807
Potter	1804	Coudersport	1807
Tioga	1804	Wellsborough	1806
Cambria	1804	Ebensburg	1805
Clearfield	1804	Clearfield	1805
Bradford	1810	Towanda	1812
Susquehanna	1810	Montrose	1811
Schuylkill	1811	Pottsville	1816

COUNTIES IN PENNSYLVANIA (*Continued*).

Counties.	When formed.	County towns.	When laid out.
Lehigh	1812	Allentown	1751
Lebanon	1813	Lébanon	1750
Columbia	1813	Bloomsburg	1802
Union	1813	Lewisburg	1785
Pike	1814	Milford	1800
Perry	1820	New Bloomfield	1822
Juniata	1831	Mifflintown	1791
Monroe	1836	Stroudsburg	1806
Clarion	1839	Clarion	1840
Clinton	1839	Lockhaven	1833
Wyoming	1842	Tunkhannock	1790
Carbon	1843	Mauch Chunk	1815
Elk	1843	Ridgway	1843
Blair	1846	Holidaysburg	1820
Sullivan	1847	Laporte	1850
Forest	1848	Tionesta	1852
Fulton	1850	McConnellsburg	1786
Lawrence	1850	New Castle	1802
Montour	1850	Danville	1790
Snyder	1855	Middleburg	1800
Cameron	1860	Emporium	1861
Lackawanna	1878	Scranton	1840

GOVERNORS OF THE SWEDISH AND DUTCH COLONIES ON
THE DELAWARE, OF THE ENGLISH PROVINCE, AND OF
THE STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

SWEDISH.

1638-41. Peter Minuit.	1653-54. John Pappegoya.
1641-43. Peter Hollender.	1654-55. John Claude Rysingh.
1643-53. John Printz.	

DUTCH.

1655-57. John Paul Jacquet.	1658-63. William Beckman (com- pany).
1657-59. Jacob Alrichs* (city).	
1659-63. Alexander d'Hinoyossa (city).	1663-64. Alexander d'Hinoyossa.†
1657-58. Goeran Van Dyck (com- pany).	

* Colony divided into city and company, 1657.

† Colony united, 1663.

ENGLISH.

1664-67. Richard Nicholls. 1667-73. Francis Lovelace.

DUTCH.

1673-74. Peter Alrichs,
Deputy Governor.

ENGLISH.

1674-81. Sir Edmund Andros.

WILLIAM PENN, PROPRIETOR.

1681-82. William Markham, <i>Deputy Governor.</i>	1695-99. William Markham (under restored proprietorship), <i>Deputy Governor.</i>
1682-84. William Penn.	
1684-86. The Council (Thomas Lloyd, <i>President</i>).	1699-1701. William Penn.
1686-88. Five Commissioners ap- pointed by Penn.	1701-03. Andrew Hamilton, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>
1688-90. John Blackwell, <i>Deputy Governor.</i>	1703-04. The Council (Edward Shippen, <i>President</i>).
1690-91. The Council (Thomas Lloyd, <i>President</i>).	1704-09. John Evans, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>
1691-92. Thomas Lloyd, <i>Deputy Governor.</i>	1709-17. Charles Gookin, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>
1693-95. Benjamin Fletcher, <i>Royal Governor of New York.</i>	1717-18. Sir William Keith, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>

JOHN, RICHARD, AND THOMAS PENN, PROPRIETORS.

1718-26. Sir William Keith, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>	1736-38. The Council (James Logan, <i>President</i>).
1726-36. Patrick Gordon, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>	1738-47. George Thomas, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>

JOHN PENN D. 1746. RICHARD AND THOMAS, PROPRIETORS.

1747-48. The Council (Anthony Palmer, <i>President</i>).	1756-59. William Denny, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>
1748-54. James Hamilton, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>	1759-63. James Hamilton, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>
1754-56. Robert H. Morris, <i>Deputy Governor.</i>	1763-71. John Penn, son of Richard, <i>Lieutenant Governor.</i>

RICHARD PENN D. 1771. JOHN AND THOMAS, PROPRIETORS.

1771. The Council, (James Hamilton, . *President*). 1773-76. John Penn, *Lieutenant Governor*.
 1771-73. Richard Penn, brother of John, *Lieutenant Governor*.

UNDER FIRST STATE CONSTITUTION.

- 1776-77. Committee of Safety (Benjamin Franklin, *Chairman*). 1781-82. William Moore, *President of Sup. Ex. Council*.
 1777-78. Thomas Wharton, Jr., *President of Sup. Ex. Council*. 1782-85. John Dickinson, *President of Sup. Ex. Council*.
 1778. George Bryan, *vice* Wharton, deceased. 1785-88. Benjamin Franklin, *President of Sup. Ex. Council*.
 1778-81. Joseph Reed, *President of Sup. Ex. Council*. 1788-90. Thomas Mifflin, *President of Sup. Ex. Council*.

UNDER CONSTITUTION OF 1790.

- 1790-99. Thomas Mifflin. 1820-23. Joseph Hiester.
 1799-1808. Thomas McKean. 1823-29. John A. Shulze.
 1808-17. Simon Snyder. 1829-35. George Wolf.
 1817-20. William Findlay. 1835-39. Joseph Ritner.

UNDER CONSTITUTION OF 1838.

- 1839-45. David R. Porter. 1855-58. James Pollock.
 1845-48. Francis R. Shunk. 1858-61. William F. Paeker.
 1848-52. William F. Johnston, *vice* Shunk, resigned. 1861-67. Andrew G. Curtin.
 1852-55. William Bigler. 1867-73. John W. Geary.

UNDER CONSTITUTION OF 1873.

- 1873-79. John F. Hartranft. 1887-91. James A. Beaver.
 1879-83. Henry M. Hoyt. 1891-95. Robert E. Pattison.
 1883-87. Robert E. Pattison. 1895-99. Daniel H. Hastings.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF INTERESTING EVENTS NOT MENTIONED IN THE PRECEDING HISTORY.

- 1642. Lutheran catechism translated into the Indian language by Campanius.
- 1646. Church built on Tinicum Island. First mention made of Upland, now Chester.
- 1654. Treaty at Tinicum between the Swedes and the Indian chiefs.
- 1657. School at New Amstel (New Castle), the first on record in the colony.
- 1669. Block-house built at Wicaco; used as a church in 1677.
- 1679. The first English child born in Pennsylvania.
- 1682. The first English child born in Philadelphia. Letitia House erected for William Penn; now preserved in Fairmount Park.
- 1683. The first grist-mill built near Germantown. First post-office established in Philadelphia. First school in Philadelphia, taught by Enoch Flower.
- 1684. Pennsbury manor-house built for William Penn. First Baptist societies organized in Bucks County, near Bristol, and in Chester County.
- 1685. Court-house at Chester erected. First printing-press in Philadelphia established by William Bradford; an almanac the first issue.
- 1686. The first prison in Philadelphia built. First Baptist church in Pennsylvania on Pennepack Creek, near site of Holmesburg. First meeting-house in Germantown, built by German Friends.
- 1688. Friends' meeting-houses built in Darby and Haverford.
- 1689. Germantown incorporated. Public school established in Philadelphia; chartered by William Penn in 1701; still exists as the "William Penn Charter School."
- 1692. First school established at Darby.
- 1695. First Episcopal church erected in Philadelphia, on site of present Christ Church. Fulling-mill built in Darby.
- 1696. The first paper-mill in Pennsylvania erected near Germantown.
- 1700. Swedes' Church built on site of old block-house at Wicaco. John Penn, son of William Penn, born in the "Old Slate Roof House," Philadelphia. He was afterwards known as "The American."
- 1701. Philadelphia chartered as a city.
- 1704. The first Presbyterian church in the province erected at Philadelphia; known as the "Old Buttonwood Church."
- 1706. The first Presbytery in America organized in Philadelphia.
- 1707. The old court-house, Market Street, Philadelphia, erected.
- 1713. The Friends' Almshouse founded at Philadelphia; buildings erected 1713-29.

- 1718. William Penn died at Ruscombe, England. Dunkers settled about Germantown and in Lancaster County.
- 1719. The first newspaper outside Boston, the third in America, published in Philadelphia; named *The American Weekly Mercury*.
- 1720. The first iron furnaces erected in Pennsylvania.
- 1721. The first insurance office opened in Philadelphia.
- 1723. Benjamin Franklin arrived in Philadelphia. Paper money first issued in the province.
- 1728. Bartram's Botanic Garden, near Gray's Ferry, begun.
- 1729. The building of the State-House, Philadelphia, begun; completed in 1734. Publication of *The Pennsylvania Gazette* begun by Franklin; the first successful newspaper. Second paper-mill built, in Concord Township, Delaware County. Catholic chapel built near Frankford, Philadelphia County.
- 1730. Line of stages between Philadelphia and New York begun; bi-monthly; weekly in 1733.
- 1731. The first Baptist church erected in Philadelphia. Inoculation first practised in Pennsylvania. Public library started by Benjamin Franklin; chartered as the Philadelphia Library in 1742.
- 1732. "Poor Richard's Almanac" first issued by Franklin. "Colony in Schuylkill" club organized; still exists as "State in Schuylkill."
- 1733. The first negroes emancipated in Philadelphia. First German Reformed church erected at Germantown. First Roman Catholic chapel in Philadelphia.
- 1734. The first newspaper in the colonies in a foreign language (German) issued at Germantown. Small quantities of silk produced. First Masonic lodge in the province organized at Philadelphia, Benjamin Franklin master.
- 1735. Benjamin Franklin appointed postmaster of Philadelphia.
- 1738. Benjamin West, the first native artist of America, born in Springfield, Delaware County. First fire company organized in Philadelphia by Franklin.
- 1739. Moravian settlement begun at the Forks of the Delaware.
- 1740. Lazaretto for sick immigrants established at Tinicum. First permanent settlement at Bethlehem.
- 1741. The first literary journal in the colonies, *The General Magazine and Historical Chronicle*, established by Franklin at Philadelphia.
- 1743. The American Philosophical Society founded in Philadelphia; incorporated 1780; building erected 1785. A German edition of the Bible issued at Germantown.
- 1745. The Franklin stoves invented by Benjamin Franklin.

- 1746. The first iron rolling and slitting mill in Pennsylvania.
- 1747. The first steel furnace erected in Philadelphia.
- 1748. The first public lottery sanctioned by the assembly. The first German Lutheran Synod in the colonies organized in Philadelphia.
- 1749. Academy established at Germantown. School for girls at Bethlehem. An academy and charitable school founded by Franklin at Philadelphia; opened as a Latin school 1750; incorporated 1753; chartered in 1755 as "The College, Academy, and Charitable School of Philadelphia;" became the University of Pennsylvania in 1779.
- 1750. In this year 5300 immigrants came to Pennsylvania; Philadelphia had more than 2000 houses; about 4500 in 1768; reached Boston in population about 1750; soon after was far ahead.
- 1751. The Pennsylvania Hospital founded at Philadelphia; buildings erected 1755 to 1804. Loganian Library founded. A German and English newspaper published in Lancaster.
- 1752. Cannon stoves first used. Mutual assurance company founded. Franklin discovered that lightning is due to electricity. The State-House bell imported from England; recast in Philadelphia 1753.
- 1753. Benjamin Franklin made deputy postmaster-general for the British colonies. The daily delivery of letters by carriers began in Philadelphia. Two attempts were made to find the Northwest passage by a vessel sent from Philadelphia.
- 1755. Free school started by subscription at Easton.
- 1756. Line of stages and wagons established between Philadelphia and Baltimore.
- 1757. First weekly post from Philadelphia to Carlisle.
- 1759. First theatre built in Philadelphia.
- 1762. First lectures on anatomy in Philadelphia, by Dr. William Shippen.
- 1763. Mason and Dixon began to run the boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland.
- 1764. Grand Lodge of Masons organized in Philadelphia. Medical school founded, the oldest in the United States, now the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania.
- 1766. Stage-coaches made the journey between Philadelphia and New York in two days; were called "flying machines."
- 1769. Methodism first introduced into Pennsylvania. Chemistry first taught in America, by Dr. Rush.
- 1770. Carpenters' Hall, at Philadelphia, built; used by the First Continental Congress in 1774.
- 1771. The Medical Society of Philadelphia organized.

1773. The first Methodist Conference in the United States held at Philadelphia. The first steam-engine of American origin built in Philadelphia.
1774. The Friends abolished slavery among themselves.
1775. Benjamin Franklin appointed by Congress postmaster-general.
1776. First powder-mill in Pennsylvania erected near Chester. Law passed for establishing schools in every county.
1777. State-House bell and Christ Church bells taken to places of safety to preserve them from the British.
1780. The Humane Society of Philadelphia founded; incorporated 1793.
1782. The first manufacture of fustians and jeans in America, at Philadelphia.
1784. The Philadelphia Museum founded, by Charles M. Peale. The first daily newspaper in the country issued at Philadelphia; previously a weekly,—*The Pennsylvania Packet, or the General Advertiser*.
1785. Fitch began experiments in steam navigation on the Delaware. The Philadelphia Agricultural Society founded, the first in the United States.
1786. A Philadelphia directory issued, the first in the United States. The first mail between Philadelphia and Pittsburg. *The Pittsburg Gazette* issued, the first newspaper west of the Alleghanies. The western boundary of the State settled. An act passed to appropriate sixty thousand acres of land in aid of public schools.
1787. The College of Physicians at Philadelphia founded; chartered 1789. Bishop White, the first Episcopal bishop in Pennsylvania and the second in the United States, ordained in England.
1789. First stage-coach line from Philadelphia to Reading. First Episcopal Convention in America held at Philadelphia.
1790. Congress begins its sessions in Philadelphia. First manufacture of brooms from broom-corn. The Fitch steamboats make regular trips for four months between Philadelphia and Trenton.
1791. First Sunday-school society in the United States founded in Philadelphia. First newspaper in Harrisburg, *The Oracle of Dauphin*.
1792. The first turnpike road in the United States, from Philadelphia to Lancaster, begun; length, sixty-two miles; completed 1794. United States Mint established at Philadelphia; worked by horse-power until 1815.
1793. Second inauguration of President Washington, in Independence Hall.
1796. The first successful type-foundry in America established at Philadelphia. First paper-mill west of the mountains built near Brownsville.

1797. John Adams inaugurated President of the United States in Independence Hall.
1798. The Schuylkill Permanent Bridge at Philadelphia begun; opened in 1805; the first of the kind in America.
1799. The State Legislature met at Lancaster; continued to meet there until 1812.
1800. Seat of the national government removed from Philadelphia to Washington.
1801. Philadelphia supplied with water from Centre Square; works operated by steam; log pipes used. Chamber of Commerce founded. Ground for the United States Navy-Yard purchased.
1802. Law Library of Philadelphia established.
1803. Pennsylvania first called the Keystone State.
1804. First stage between Chambersburg and Pittsburg.
1805. The Academy of Fine Arts of Philadelphia founded; incorporated 1806. First dry-goods commission house in the country opened at Philadelphia.
1806. First railroad in the United States built at Leiperville quarries, Delaware County; rails of wood; worked by horses.
1808. First newspaper, *The Mirror*, published in Erie. Philadelphia Bible Society, the first in America, founded.
1810. The Treaty Tree at Kensington blown down. The first steam ferry-boat to Camden, and steamboats from Philadelphia to Chester and Bordentown, began running.
1811. The first steamboat on Western waters launched at Pittsburg.
1812. The first rolling-mill at Pittsburg built. Water-works begun at Fairmount, Philadelphia; finished 1815. Academy of Natural Sciences founded; incorporated 1816.
1814. Philadelphia Orphan Society Asylum founded; incorporated 1816.
- 1816-17. Wire suspension bridge, first in the country, built over the Schuylkill at Philadelphia.
1817. Bridge over the Susquehanna at Harrisburg finished.
1818. Bridge over the Monongahela built at Pittsburg. First steamboat launched on Lake Erie. First light-house on the great lakes built at Presque Isle. Lehigh Canal begun; completed 1838.
1819. United States Bank building at Philadelphia begun; completed 1824. First bridge built over the Alleghany at Pittsburg. Apprentices' Library, Philadelphia, founded. Corner-stone of State Capitol at Harrisburg laid; building completed 1821.
1821. Deaf and Dumb Asylum founded in Philadelphia; building erected 1825. Philadelphia College of Pharmacy, the first in the country, established.

1822. State Legislature first met in the Capitol at Harrisburg. Mercantile Library of Philadelphia founded; chartered 1842. Grand Lodge of Odd-Fellows organized at Philadelphia.
1823. Eastern Penitentiary, Philadelphia, erected. The present dam and water-works at Fairmount completed.
1824. Franklin Institute, Philadelphia, incorporated. The American Sunday-School Union formed.
1825. Schuylkill Navigation Canal completed; begun 1815. Historical Society of Pennsylvania founded at Philadelphia. Manufacture of queensware begun, the first in the country.
1826. Manufacture of school slates begun in Pennsylvania, near the Delaware River.
1827. The Jefferson Medical College founded at Philadelphia. Corner-stone of the first lock of the Pennsylvania Canal laid at Harrisburg. Pennsylvania Horticultural Society, the first in the United States, founded at Philadelphia. Mauch Chunk Railroad built; second iron track in the country. House of Refuge, Philadelphia, incorporated. Western Penitentiary, Pittsburg, completed.
1828. First periodical in the country devoted to women, *The Ladies' Magazine*, started at Philadelphia; united with *Godey's Ladies' Book* in 1837. First manufacture of paper from straw and hay, at Meadville. First run of a locomotive on an American railroad, on Carbondale and Honesdale Railroad.
- 1829-32. United States Mint building erected at Philadelphia; new Mint building begun 1897. First penny paper in the country, *The Cent*, issued, at Philadelphia; soon discontinued.
1831. Stephen Girard died, the richest man in the country, worth about ten million dollars. First locomotive built at Baldwin works.
1832. The Philadelphia, Germantown and Norristown Railroad finished; the "Old Ironsides," the first effective locomotive in the State, used on it. Severe epidemic of cholera in Philadelphia.
1833. The first National Temperance Convention held at Philadelphia. Corner-stone of Girard College laid; building opened January 1, 1848. Institute for the Blind opened.
1834. Common school system of Pennsylvania established. First homœopathic medical school in the world opened at Allentown. Columbia line of canal and railroad opened to Pittsburg; operated by horse-power until 1836.
1835. Manufacture of mineral teeth begun in Philadelphia about this time.
1836. Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane built at Philadelphia; opened 1841. Philadelphia first lighted with gas February 10. Gas-works at Pittsburg built.

- 1840. Pennsylvania and Ohio Canal completed; begun 1827. The city of Scranton founded.
- 1842. New wire suspension bridge over the Schuylkill finished.
- 1846. The first telegraph lines in Pennsylvania built.
- 1847. The zinc-mines of Lehigh County discovered.
- 1849. State Lunatic Asylum built at Harrisburg. First women's medical college in the world established at Philadelphia.
- 1850. Western House of Refuge chartered at Pittsburg. School of Design for Women established at Philadelphia; first in the country. The first factory west of the Alleghanies for working copper and brass opened at Pittsburg; first in the United States for working American copper.
- 1852. Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children established at Germantown; removed to Elwyn 1859. Manufacture of galvanized iron begun at Philadelphia; first in the country.
- 1853. Zinc-works at Bethlehem started; first sheet zinc made there in 1865.
- 1854. Normal School at Philadelphia founded.
- 1855. Corner-stone of Masonic Temple laid in Philadelphia; corner-stone of new Masonic Temple laid in 1868; building dedicated 1873. Lemon Hill dedicated to the city as Fairmount Park, the first addition to the garden adjoining Fairmount Hill; Sedgely purchased in 1856, Lansdowne in 1866, George's Hill donated in 1867, other purchases subsequently.
- 1857. Normal School bill passed; first State normal school opened at Millersville, 1859. Academy of Music of Philadelphia completed.
- 1858. Introduction of the street railway system of Philadelphia begun; change from horse to electric power begun in 1892.
- 1859. State Agricultural College opened in Centre County.
- 1860. The business in petroleum began; the wildest speculation ever known in the United States.
- 1871. The Paid Fire Department of Philadelphia established. The building of the City Hall begun; the largest municipal building in America and the loftiest building in the world; corner-stone laid July 4, 1874.
- 1874. Great inundation at Pittsburg; about one hundred lives lost; immense destruction of property.
- 1878. Cyclone at Philadelphia, October 23; more than four hundred buildings unroofed; more than one hundred injured and demolished.
- 1880. Committee of One Hundred formed to promote honest politics; disbanded 1886.
- 1884. Philadelphia Post-Office opened.

- 1887. The amended city charter, known as the Bullitt Bill, in operation in Philadelphia.
- 1888. The great storm known as "The Blizzard" began March 11.
- 1891. The Academy of Natural Sciences' expedition to North Greenland, under Lieutenant Peary, made important discoveries. Drexel Institute of Art, Science, and Industry dedicated.
- 1895. The Philadelphia Commercial Bourse opened.
- 1897. The Commercial Section of the Philadelphia Museums opened; exercises attended by many foreign delegates. Strikers in the coal region fired on by sheriff's deputies; many killed and wounded.
- 1898. The National Guard of Pennsylvania was called out by the national government to assist in the war with Spain.

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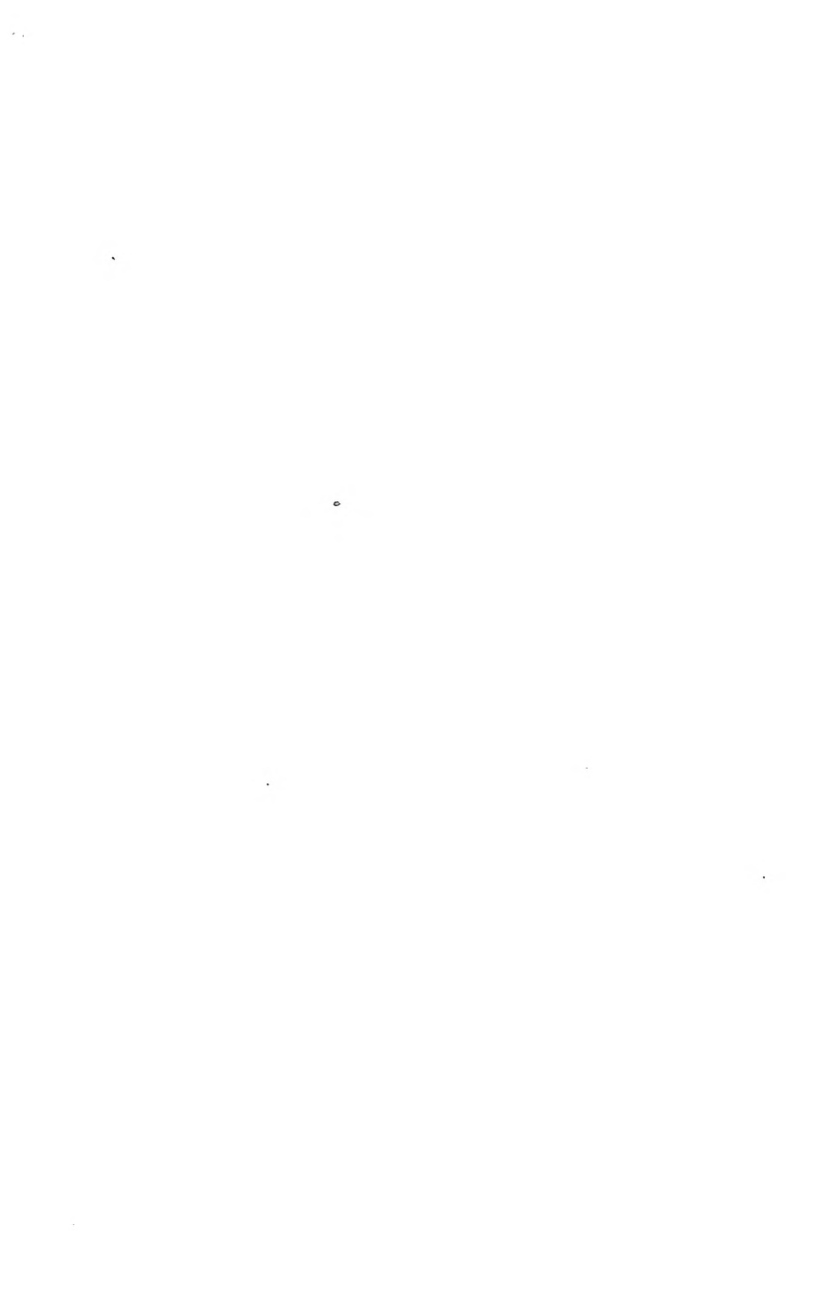
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